

**LEARNING WITHIN FORMAL MENTORING RELATIONSHIPS:  
WHAT MENTEES AND MENTORS LEARN AT DIFFERENT  
PHASES OF THE MENTORING LIFE-CYCLE AND FACTORS  
THAT MODERATE THE LEARNING PROCESS**

JENNI JONES MA, BA(Hons)

A thesis submitted in partial fulfilment of the requirements of the  
University of Wolverhampton  
for the degree of Doctor of Philosophy

September 2016

This work or any part thereof has not previously been presented in any form to the University or to any other body whether for the purposes of assessment, publication or any other purpose (unless otherwise indicated). Save for any express acknowledgements, references and/or bibliographies cited in the work, I confirm that the intellectual content of the work is the result of my own efforts and of no other person.

The right of Jenni Jones to be identified as author of this work is asserted in accordance with ss.77 and 78 of the Copyright, Designs and Patents Act 1988. At this date copyright is owned by the author.

Signature.....*Jenni Jones*.....  
Date.....08/09/16.....

## **DEDICATION**

To my wonderful husband, Dan

And our beautiful children; Archie, Earnest, Sophie, Callum and Kurtis

XXXXXX

## ABSTRACT

Mentoring is increasing in popularity in the workplace but we do not fully understand it.

There is not enough evidence or clarity within the practitioner or academic field to demonstrate the learning outcomes for both parties and what factors moderate the mentoring relationship over time. Therefore, this doctoral research aims to investigate this gap.

Following an extensive literature review of the mentoring, learning and moderating factors, four research questions were identified. These are:

1. What do mentees and mentors perceive they are learning during their formal mentoring relationships?
2. How does the learning change over time for both parties?
3. What are the factors that moderate mentee and mentor learning during their formal mentoring relationships?
4. How do these moderating factors change over time for both parties?

The research was conducted within three collaborating public sector organisations drawn from the Healthcare sector (Case 1) and the Police sector (Case 2 & 3) of the United Kingdom. Interviews and focus groups were conducted: 38 mentee and mentor interviews and two focus groups in Healthcare, 68 interviews and four focus groups in the first Police study and 12 focus groups in the second Police study, spread across the four phases of the mentoring lifecycle; initiation, cultivation, separation and redefinition (Kram, 1988).

Key findings have been revealed in relation to the particular types of learning outcomes that result from formal mentoring dyadic relationships and the moderating factors that impact positively and negatively on the mentoring learning process. The present study has identified that both mentors and mentees learnt across all four learning domains as defined by Wanberg et al., (2003): *cognitive*,

*skill-based, affective-related learning and social networks*, in all three organisations. Generally for both parties, the largest number of mentee and mentor responses were in relation to the *affective-related learning* domain, in the area of confidence. For the moderating factors, there were common facilitating and hindering factors identified for both parties based on Hegstad and Wentlings's (2005) moderating factors, with four new factors added as a result of this research: *personal factors, other relationships, similarity and difference*. There was no similar pattern of mentee and mentor responses in relation to moderating factors over the four phases of the mentoring lifecycle, across all three case organisations. However, a common factor for all three case study organisations was that formal mentoring relationships endured despite some significant hindering factors within the workplace.

The thesis concludes by discussing implications for theory and practice that have emerged from this study. It confirms that mentors learn within the same four learning domains as mentees throughout formal mentoring and that there are some significant moderating factors for both parties that change in emphasis over time. These insights have led to the modification of one established formal mentoring model and the creation of two new theoretical models in relation to learning outcomes and moderating factors. Comments are also made about the power relationships within the public sector and how mentoring can be embraced or restricted through the organisational structure, culture and climate.

## TABLE OF CONTENTS

## Page numbers:

<b>Section I – INTRODUCTION</b>	<b>1-17</b>
<b>Chapter 1 – Introduction</b>	<b>1</b>
1.1 The importance of this research.	1
1.2 Statement of the identified research problems to be addressed.	3
<i>1.2.1 Research Problem 1</i>	4
<i>1.2.2 Research Problem 2</i>	8
1.3 Methodological contribution – changes over time.	14
1.4 Key research questions.	16
1.5 Structure/content of following chapters.	17
 <b>Section II – LITERATURE REVIEW</b>	 <b>18-42</b>
<b>Chapter 2 – The workplace</b>	<b>21</b>
2.1 The changing context of work.	21
2.2 Workplace learning.	28
2.3 The rise of mentoring in the workplace.	31
2.4 Using mentoring to develop potential in the workplace.	34
2.5 Other relationships in the workplace.	36
2.6 Summary.	42
 <b>Chapter 3 – Mentoring</b>	 <b>43-73</b>
3.1 An overview of mentoring.	43
3.2 Mentoring defined.	46
3.3 Coaching and other forms of helping.	51
3.4 Formal mentoring programmes.	57
3.5 Important mentoring models.	62
3.6 Negative issues and relational problems in mentoring.	72
3.7 Summary.	73

<b>Chapter 4 – Learning</b>	<b>74-93</b>
4.1 An overview of learning.	74
4.2 Psychological theories of learning	76
4.3 Adult learning theory.	80
4.4 Learning outcomes in mentoring.	88
4.5 Summary.	93
<b>Chapter 5 – Context</b>	<b>94-111</b>
5.1 Organisational context and culture.	94
5.2 The UK National Health Service (NHS).	100
5.3 The UK Police.	103
5.4 A formal mentoring and learning theoretical framework.	109
5.5 Structure of following chapters.	111
<b>Section III – METHODOLOGY AND METHODS</b>	<b>112-157</b>
<b>Chapter 6 – Methodology and Methods</b>	<b>112</b>
6.1 Research philosophy.	113
6.2 Research approach and strategy.	119
6.3 Research design.	124
6.4 Sampling and data collection methods.	131
6.5 Qualitative data analysis methods and procedure.	143
6.6 Ensuring the quality of the findings.	146
6.7 Ethical issues.	154
6.8 Summary of chapter.	156
<b>Section IV – FINDINGS</b>	<b>158-180</b>
<b>Chapter 7 - Results of the NHS Healthcare Trust (NHS) Pilot Study</b>	<b>158</b>
7.1 Result of addressing research question 1	159

7.1.1 <i>Mentee and mentor interview findings.</i>	160
7.1.2 <i>Mentor focus group findings.</i>	162
7.2 Result of addressing research question 2	164
7.2.1 <i>Learning over the different phases of the mentoring cycle.</i>	164
7.2.2 <i>Perceived personal change during and at the end.</i>	168
7.3 Result of addressing research question 3	171
7.3.1 <i>Mentee and mentor interview findings.</i>	171
7.3.2 <i>Mentor focus group findings.</i>	176
7.4 Result of addressing research question 4	177
7.5 Synthesis of the NHS study findings.	180
<b>Chapter 8 - Results of the Central England Police Force (CEPF) Study</b>	<b>182-251</b>
8.1 Result of addressing research question 1	182
8.1.1 <i>Mentee and mentor interview findings.</i>	183
8.1.2 <i>Mentor focus group findings.</i>	195
8.2 Result of addressing research question 2	201
8.2.1 <i>Learning over the different phases of the mentoring cycle.</i>	201
8.2.2 <i>Perceived personal change during and at end.</i>	206
8.3 Result of addressing research question 3	210
8.3.1 <i>Mentee and mentor interview findings.</i>	210
8.3.2 <i>Mentee and mentor focus group findings.</i>	240
8.4 Result of addressing research question 4	247
8.5 Synthesis of the CEPF study findings	250
<b>Chapter 9 - Results of the North England Police Force (NEPF) Study</b>	<b>252-270</b>
9.1 Result of addressing research question 1	253
9.1.1 <i>Mentee and mentor focus group findings.</i>	253
9.2 Result of addressing research question 2	255
9.2.1 <i>Learning over the different phases of the mentoring cycle.</i>	256
9.2.2 <i>Perceived personal change during and at the end.</i>	258
9.3 Result of addressing research question 3	261
9.3.1 <i>Mentee and mentor focus group findings.</i>	261

9.4 Result of addressing research question 4	266
9.5 Synthesis of the NEPF study findings	269
<b>Chapter 10 - Results of the Cross-case Comparison Analysis</b>	<b>271-288</b>
10.1 Result of addressing research question 1	271
10.2 Result of addressing research question 2	276
10.3 Result of addressing research question 3	278
10.4 Result of addressing research question 4	281
10.5 Summary of key findings from all three cases	283
<b>Section V – DISCUSSION AND CONCLUSIONS</b>	<b>289-331</b>
<b>Chapter 11 – Discussion</b>	<b>289</b>
11.1 Research question 1	289
<i>11.1.1 Both parties learn in all four learning domains.</i>	289
<i>11.1.2. Mentoring develops confidence.</i>	292
<i>11.1.3 Mentoring develops wider knowledge.</i>	293
<i>11.1.4 Mentoring develops different skills.</i>	295
<i>11.1.5 Social networks generally created the least amount of learning.</i>	298
11.2 Research question 2	299
<i>11.2.1 Affective-related learning increases over time.</i>	299
<i>11.2.2 Confidence increases over time for both parties.</i>	301
<i>11.2.3 Cognitive and skill-based learning fluctuates over time.</i>	303
<i>11.2.4 Social networks created the fewest responses at all phases</i>	304
<i>11.2.5 NHS and the CEPF mentors showed same pattern of responses.</i>	305
11.3 Research question 3	307
<i>11.3.1 Four additional moderating factors have been added.</i>	307
<i>11.3.2 The importance of other relationships in mentoring.</i>	309
<i>11.3.3 Managers can be facilitating or hindering in mentoring.</i>	311
<i>11.3.4 Time is a hindering factor in mentoring.</i>	314
<i>11.3.5 Similarity and difference are facilitating factors in mentoring.</i>	315
<i>11.3.6 HR challenges are a hindering factor within the Police</i>	317
11.4 Research question 4	320
<i>11.4.1 The pattern of some responses over time was similar</i>	320
<i>11.4.2 Mentee and mentor responses generally reduced within Police</i>	322
<i>11.4.3 Some responses remained high for mentors (CEPF).</i>	323
<i>11.4.4 There was no similar pattern in relation to positive/negative</i>	325
<i>11.4.5 Mentoring seemed to endure and learning occurred</i>	327



11.5 Limitations of the study.	328
11.6 In summary.	330
<b>Chapter 12 – Conclusions and Recommendations</b>	<b>332-345</b>
12.1 Summary of what this study has revealed.	332
<i>11.1.1 Confirmation of what is already known.</i>	333
<i>11.1.2 Synthesis of new insights and theoretical contribution.</i>	334
12.2 Directions for future research.	340
12.3 Implications for practice.	342
12.4 Concluding comments.	345
<b>References</b>	<b>346-369</b>
<b>Appendices</b>	<b>370+</b>

## FIGURES AND TABLES

### *Figures*

**Fig. 1.1** - A Conceptual (Dynamic) Process Model of Formal Mentoring

**Fig. 2.1** – The elements of the literature review

**Fig. 2.2** – Showing the effects of Education & Training on human beings and converting them into human capital and effects of human capital on economic growth

**Fig. 2.3** - The Relationship Constellation

**Fig. 3.1** - The 2 dimensional model of mentoring relationships

**Fig. 3.2** - The support and challenge model

**Fig. 4.1** - Pratt's (1988) model of pedagogical and andragogical relationships

**Fig. 5.1** - An open systems perspective on mentoring

**Fig. 6.1** - The elements of the research process

**Fig. 6.2** – Embedding data collection methods in epistemological approaches

**Fig. 10.1** - A summary of the key findings for mentees and mentors from all three case study organisations in relation to research question 1

**Fig. 10.2** - A summary of the key findings for mentees and mentors from all three case study organisations in relation to research question 2

**Fig. 10.3** - A summary of the key findings for mentees and mentors from all three case study organisations in relation to research question 3

**Fig. 10.4** - A summary of the key findings for mentees and mentors from all three case study organisations in relation to research question 4

**Fig. 11.1** - Showing how line management support combines with mentor/mentee engagement to encourage learning

**Fig. 12.1** - A summary of the key findings that this study has revealed in relation to the four specific research questions

**Fig. 12.2** - An amended version of Wanberg et al.'s (2003) model with mentor 'proximal' outcomes added

**Fig. 12.3** - A model showing the key factors that may contribute to increased affective-related learning over time, for both mentees and mentors

**Fig. 12.4** - A model showing the significant moderating factors that impact on the mentoring relationship for both mentees and mentors

## *Tables*

**Table 3.1** – Comparing the sponsorship and developmental mentoring approaches

**Table 3.2** – Contrasting characteristics of coaching and mentoring

**Table 3.3** - Mentoring, Counselling and Coaching comparison grid

**Table. 3.4** - Phases of the mentoring relationship

**Table. 3.5** - Mentoring functions

**Table 5.1** - Summarising the NHS and Police context and culture together

**Table 6.1** - Showing the Scientist vs Detective debate in relation to theoretical perspectives

**Table 7.1** - Categorisation of the collected NHS mentee and mentor responses against Wanberg et al.'s (2003) four learning domains

**Table 7.2** - Additional supporting information from NHS mentors in relation to their learning

**Table 7.3** - Categorisation of the collected NHS mentee/mentor responses on the four learning domains against Kram's (1988) four mentoring phases

**Table 7.4** - Perceived changes personally experienced by mentees and mentors over time as a result of the mentoring

**Table 7.5** - Factors that moderated the learning within the NHS mentoring relationships

**Table 7.6** - The five key moderating factors within the NHS mentoring relationships, showing the extent to which they were helpful or hindering

**Table 7.7** - Supporting information in relation to moderating factors from NHS mentor focus groups

**Table 7.8** - Categorisation of the collected NHS mentee/mentor positive and negative responses on the five key moderating factors against Kram's (1988) four mentoring phases

**Table 8.1** - Categorisation of the collected CEPF mentee and mentor responses against Wanberg et al.'s (2003) four learning domains

**Table 8.2** - Additional supporting information from CEPF mentees and mentors in relation to their learning

**Table 8.3** - Categorisation of the collected CEPF mentee/mentor responses on the four learning domains against Kram's (1988) four mentoring phases

**Table 8.4** - Perceived changes personally experienced by mentees over time as a result of the mentoring

**Table 8.5** - Perceived changes personally experienced by mentors over time as a result of the mentoring

**Table 8.6** - Factors that moderated the learning that took place within the CEPF mentoring relationships

**Table 8.7** - The 8 key moderating factors within the CEPF mentoring relationships, showing the extent to which they were positively or negatively mentioned

**Table 8.8** - Supporting information in relation to moderating factors

**Table 8.9** - Categorisation of the collected CEPF mentee positive and negative responses on the eight key moderating factors against Kram's (1988) four mentoring phases

**Table 8.10** - Categorisation of the collected CEPF mentor positive and negative responses on the eight key moderating factors against Kram's (1988) four mentoring phases

**Table 9.1** - Categorisation of the collected NEPF mentee and mentor responses against Wanberg et al.'s (2003) four learning domains

**Table 9.2** - Categorisation of the collected NEPF mentee/mentor responses on the four learning domains against a condensed version of Kram's (1988) four mentoring phases

**Table 9.3** - Perceived changes personally experienced by mentees over time

**Table 9.4** - Perceived changes personally experienced by mentors over time as a result of the mentoring

**Table 9.5** - Factors that moderated the learning that took place within the NEPF mentoring relationships

**Table 9.6** - The four key moderating factors within the NEPF mentoring relationships, showing the extent to which they were positively or negatively mentioned

**Table 9.7** - Categorisation of the collected NEPF mentee/mentor positive and negative responses on the four key moderating factors against a condensed version of Kram's (1988) four mentoring phases

**Table 10.1** - Comparison of the extent of mentee and mentor learning in each learning domain across the three cases

**Table 10.2** - Comparison of mentee and mentor learning outcomes in each learning domain across the three cases

**Table 10.3** - Comparison of mentee and mentor responses on the four learning domains against the four phases of the mentoring cycle, across the three cases

**Table 10.4** - Comparison of the 9 key moderating factors in relation to whether mentees and mentors across the three cases perceived they were facilitating or hindering factors

**Table 10.5** - Comparison of the 9 key moderating factors in relation to mentees and mentors responses against the four phases of the mentoring cycle, across the three cases

## **ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS**

I would like to give my heartfelt thanks to Professor Bob. Hamlin, (my Director of Studies), who has tirelessly been by my side for my whole PhD journey. You have taught me the true nature of ‘stickability’ and been the best mentor ever. This would not be here without you. I would like to thank my Supervisor, Professor Mike. Haynes, too for being a sounding board in times of need.

I would also like to thank the three Mentor Coordinators of the case study organisations who gave me access to their mentees and mentors over such a long period of time. Karen, Mo and Wendy, it has been an absolute pleasure working with you and your marvellous colleagues. I would also like to thank all the mentees and mentors who have taken part in this study. You are the ‘unsung heroes’ and you all do a fantastic job. Thank you.

Finally, I would like to thank my Mum and Dad for forensically checking my references and all my tables of numbers. Thanks both XX

## SECTION I – INTRODUCTION

### Chapter 1 – Introduction

The purpose of this chapter is to explore the topic of mentoring and discuss the compelling rationale for the study. Concerns from both the practitioner and academic community will be discussed together with the methodological contribution of this study. The research questions are also stated and the next chapters introduced.

#### 1.1 The importance of this research.

*‘Mentoring perhaps is an ‘unsung hero’ in the field of development. Its potential is huge, and with careful planning and a lot of support, can be impressively effective. Innovative mentoring programmes, properly resourced and supported, should be on every HR and Organizational Development team's agenda’ (Western, 2012, p. 53).*

From a practitioner perspective, we are using mentoring and are satisfied that it works but from an academic viewpoint we do not fully understand why it works and need to know more.

Mentoring activity has gained much momentum in private and public sector businesses, in small and large business enterprises, and within educational institutions and social contexts (Garvey, 2014). This high degree of interest is due to mentoring developing a reputation as a vehicle to develop human resources in an organisation, creating positive consequences for both the individuals involved and the organisation (Hansford, Tennett & Ehrich, 2002; Gibson, 2004; Allen, Eby & Lentz, 2006; Egan & Song, 2008; Garvey, 2014; Wang, Hu, Hurst & Yang, 2014). Thurston, D’Abate and Eddy, (2012) suggest this is because mentoring is an opportunity for individuals to make changes. With change comes movement and learning. As with all Human Resource Development (HRD) interventions, learning and development are its core purposes (Garvey, 2014).

Mentoring, as well as coaching, has been for many years a core role of HRD professionals (Hamlin & Sage, 2011) and as such has become an increasingly popular learning and development intervention in the workplace (Allen et al., 2006; CIPD surveys 2005 to 2015). However, despite both formal and informal mentoring becoming readily accepted by HRD professionals, there is still only a limited empirical research base for this phenomenon (Allen et al., 2006; Parise & Forret, 2008; Baranik, Roling & Eby, 2010; Chun, Sosik & Yun, 2012), particularly within formal mentoring. The world of practice seems to recognise its benefits but the concern is that its rapid rise in the world of business has resulted in a lack of clarity about what formal mentoring actually does, what it involves, what is gained by all parties involved, and how best to make a success of each mentoring relationship. In short, it is still not fully understood what value formal mentoring adds (Chun et al., 2012).

Academics still consider formal mentoring to be under-researched (Wanberg, Welsh & Hezlett, 2003; Eby & Lockwood, 2005; Allen et al., 2006; Baugh & Fagenson-Eland, 2007; Parise & Forret, 2008). Allen et al. (2006) were concerned that our lack of empirical research regarding formal mentoring represented a major gap in the mentoring literature. Egan and Song (2007), Baugh and Fagenson-Eland (2007), and Parise and Forret (2008) agreed that formal mentoring research was limited and that its absence was puzzling. Baugh and Fagenson-Eland (2007) suggested that future research must be focussed on formal mentoring relationships and programmes.

Despite its extensive presence within Australia, the US, the UK and other European countries, academics are concerned about overestimating its importance and contribution to learning (D'Abate, Eddy & Tannenbaum, 2003; Eby & Allen, 2008). Despite almost 30 years of research in this area (Allen, Eby, O'Brien and Lentz, 2008), the body of mentoring research has been criticised by academics as being positively skewed (Hansford et al., 2002) and concentrating primarily on the benefits of mentoring and ignoring the costs and potential drawbacks; practitioners and scholars alike need to be aware of this apparent bias (McDowall-Long, 2004.) Although research has shown that mentoring can create positive outcomes within the workplace, the effect is generally small; it is

not a stand-alone process and therefore it is difficult to attribute outcomes to mentoring directly (Gibson, 2004; Singh, Ragins & Tharenou, 2009), and as such, it should not be seen as a ‘silver bullet’ solving all HRD dilemmas (Sontag, Vappie & Wanberg, 2007, p. 604).

Although the academic world expresses caution about the lack of empirical evidence, mentoring still continues to persist within organisations, and so we should be making rigorous attempts to theorise mentoring in the context of the broader critical analyses of early twenty first century society (Colley, 2003). Allen et al., (2008) felt this lack of evidence was due to mentoring research still being in the early stages of its development. Eight years on from their observations, more research has been carried out to invest more deeply in understanding better some of the complexities of this popular workplace intervention but there has been mixed reaction, with some writers predicting mentoring as a fad that will soon move on (Sontag et al., 2007) but others seeing it as a valuable organisational tool (Liu, Lui, Kwan & Mao, 2009) which is here to stay. In summary, Ragins and Kram (2007) stated that mentoring is a complex ‘life-altering’ relationship but scholars are still unsure why and how it works.

There is now a practical and academic need to provide more evidence on whether formal mentoring can make a positive difference in the workplace. Not only to demonstrate what is gained but also to highlight factors which may enable or impede this impact. The next section will explore these research problems in more detail.

## **1.2 Statement of the identified research problems to be addressed.**

*‘In sum, the study of formal mentoring programs is an important area for future research in view of their pervasiveness and the potential they hold for becoming a significant developmental tool in the workplace as well as in other contexts’*  
(Parise & Forret, 2008, p. 239).

A preliminary review of the theory-based and practice-based literatures revealed that there are two main gaps in our understanding of mentoring from both an HRD practitioner and academic point of



view in relation to (i) the learning for both parties (the mentor and mentee), and (ii) the moderating factors.

***1.2.1 Research Problem 1 – What do mentees and mentors perceive they learn during their formal mentoring relationships?***

It is known that there are clear benefits for the mentee and the organisation in relation to performance, motivation, knowledge, skills and change but less so for the mentor (Megginson, Clutterbuck, Garvey, Stokes & Garrett-Harris, 2006), that learning outcomes can be extrinsic and intrinsic (Jones, 2012; St-Jean & Audet, 2012), and that some factors affect the success of the mentoring relationship (i.e. goal orientation: Godshalk & Sosik, 2003). However, it is not sufficiently understood in the world of practice how both parties benefit. Studies tend to show the benefits to either mentees (Phinney, Torres Campos, Padilla Kallemeyn & Kim, 2011) or mentors but rarely investigate the benefit for both parties together (Philip & Hendry, 2000; Laiho & Brandt, 2012; Garvey, 2014; Snoeren, Raaijmakers, Niessen & Abma, 2016). It is important to systematically evaluate mentoring so as not to miss any unintended (positive or negative) consequences for both parties and the organisation (Cranwell-Ward, Bossons & Gover, 2004; Megginson & Clutterbuck, 2005).

In order for mentoring to be taken more seriously as a valuable personal development tool, it is important to be able to evaluate it formally, with a view to demonstrating the learning benefits to the individuals involved, HR practitioners and the sponsoring organisation. Kirkpatrick (1996) discusses four levels of evaluation used to demonstrate the value and worth of training and development interventions: reaction level, learning level, behaviour on the job and results/organisational performance, with the return on investment (ROI) level later added by Kearns (2005). Evaluating the learning back into the job and into the organisation (behaviour level and beyond) is considered to be ‘the lost level of evaluation’ or the ‘hope for the best’ levels (Kirkpatrick & Kirkpatrick, 2009), as this is very rarely carried out.

The Chartered Institute of Personnel and Development (CIPD) Learning and Development (L&D) survey (2015) showed that one in seven organisations surveyed did not evaluate the majority of their L&D interventions, with over one third only evaluating at the initial reaction level, which essentially is measuring the satisfaction of participants. One in five assessed the transfer of learning in the workplace and very few assessed the wider impact on results or ROI level. Earlier research by Megginson and Clutterbuck (2005) showed that very few mentoring programmes are evaluated, and they suggested that mentoring evaluation should be at both the relationship level and the programme level.

According to Owen (2011) the value of mentoring is determined by how it contributes to the success of an organisation. If organisations are not properly evaluating the impact of mentoring on individuals learning beyond the 'happy sheet' level perhaps mentoring is just producing happy, but not necessarily more developed or effective individuals.

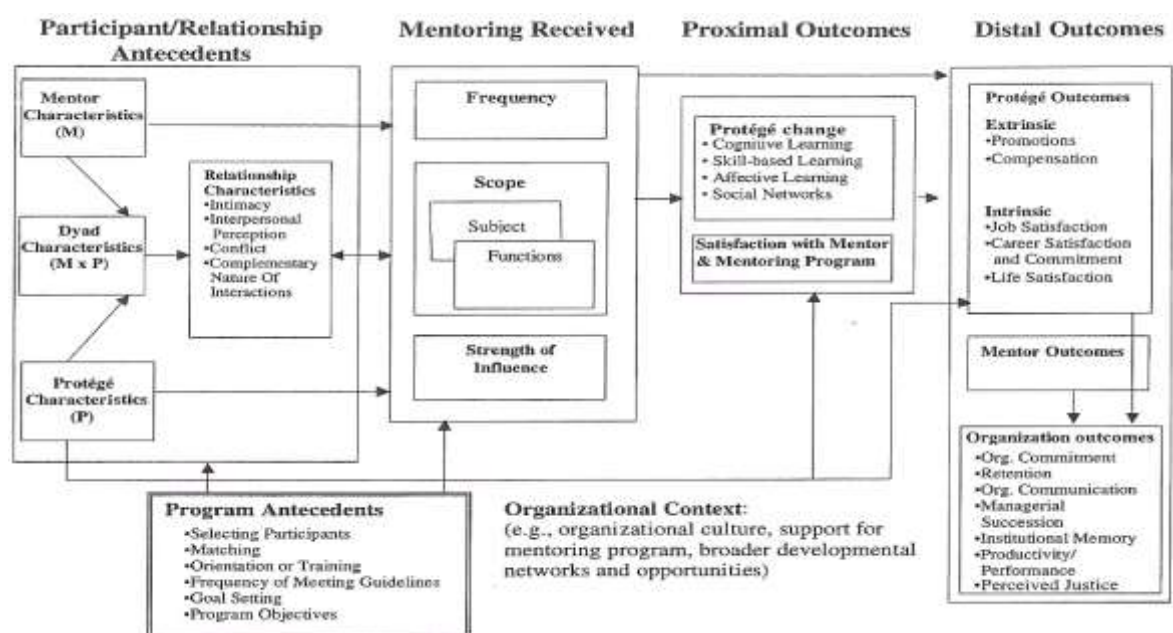
The ability to continuously learn is now considered to be a key determinant of competitive success (Sarri, 2011). Sarri goes on to say that learning is reinforced by the evaluation process. Without the evidence and clarity of what formal mentoring can provide in terms of learning outcomes, HRD professionals and organisations will not be able to ensure this is the right developmental tool for them to offer. Nor will they be able to manage mentoring effectively. Nor will they be able to realistically measure or reinforce the success of their investment in mentoring. HRD professionals and other interested parties/stakeholders (for instance, managers) need to be able to offer the best choices of intervention to effectively address the individual's learning needs in the workplace.

This research will attempt to address the practitioner knowledge gap in relation to evaluating the opportunities for learning and potential that formal mentoring relationships can provide. It will also attempt to give clarity over whether mentoring is always the right learning and development tool for those requesting it and develop a more robust business case to recommend this as a learning and development intervention for the future.

From an academic perspective, Gay and Stephenson (1998) suggested that not only an analysis but an evaluation of the purpose and outcomes of mentoring as a learning vehicle were long overdue. Almost 20 years on, evidence suggests this evaluation is still overdue.

Wanberg et al. (2003) stated that there was a striking dearth of research on formal mentoring and asserted that little had been researched within the actual developmental process to fully understand formal mentoring relationships. They proposed a dynamic process model of formal mentoring in order to stimulate further theory building and research in this arena. This model illustrates what is known within formal mentoring. It shows that formal mentoring produces some clear proximal and distal outcomes for mentees, and twelve years on from this model, other researchers have confirmed these outcomes (Lankau & Scandura, 2007; Lentz & Allen, 2009; Phinney et al., 2011; St-Jean & Audet, 2012). However, there is still scope for deeper insights into both mentee and mentor change and outcomes; specifically the actual processes underlying personal learning, the content of personal learning, and/or the outcomes of this personal learning in relation to mentoring for both parties (Allen, Eby, Poteet, Lentz & Lima, 2004; Hezlett, 2005; Hezlett & Gibson, 2005; Lankau & Scandura, 2007; Chun et al., 2012).

**Fig. 1.1 - A Conceptual (Dynamic) Process Model of Formal Mentoring**



Source: Wanberg et al. (2003) p. 92.

Due to the limited research on mentoring and learning, there have been many calls over the years to investigate this phenomenon further (Ragins & Scandura, 1997; Wanberg et al., 2003; Hezlett, 2005; Dougherty & Dreher, 2007; Ragins & Kram, 2007; Chun et al., 2012). For example, Wanberg et al.'s research showed that there is a connection between being a mentee and positive learning outcomes; but despite this, they stated that there were 'black -box' gaps in terms of exactly how learning is achieved for both mentors and mentees and what factors contribute (or not) to this. Lankau and Scandura (2007) noted that research had been carried out in relation to mentoring and its impact on job functions, job attitudes, and job performance without having a full understanding of what is learned or how both parties engage in learning, which has resulted in this black-box approach. Hezlett (2005) and Lankau and Scandura (2007) both agreed that academics needed to be clearer about the content and the process of learning within mentoring. Hezlett (2005) declared that developing a more solid understanding of what mentees learn from their mentors is a research priority and that we needed a more systematic research approach directed towards understanding what mentees learn in order to develop a comprehensive taxonomy of their learning. According to Hezlett and Gibson (2005) the key research questions still to address were: what do mentees learn from their mentors, what do mentors learn in return, and how do both parties learn from each other. Although these calls for research are over 10 years old, this knowledge gap still persists to the present day. It is still not sufficiently understood in the world of theory what both parties learn and how this learning may change over time.

*'Learning is not only the end result of a mentoring relationship. It is an integral part of the ongoing mentoring experience, starting during the preparing phase and continuing until closure is reached' (Zachary, 2000, p. 53).*

Therefore, it is important to document the learning journey. As already stated, academics have tended to focus on outcomes for one party only, mostly mentees (Lentz & Allen, 2009), yet both mentors and mentees travel a parallel journey (Zachary, 2012). Allen (2007) and Ragins and Kram (2007) called for a continued research effort from the focal point of the benefits to the mentor. Although research seems to be increasing in this area, twelve years on, Chun et al. (2012)

suggested that the literature on formal mentoring still has two critical research gaps: (i) too little attention has been given to mentors and the mutual benefits to both parties than the mentees outcomes, and (ii) that too many presumptions have been made about the value added by mentoring functions.

In short the first problem is that there are still ‘black-box’ gaps in our understanding of what both parties learn from within the mentoring relationship and how this may change over time. The present study affords an opportunity to address this limited research in relation to learning outcomes for both parties.

***1.2.2 Research Problem 2 – What are the factors that moderate mentee and mentor learning within formal mentoring relationships?***

Following on from Research Problem 1, there are still gaps in our understanding of learning generally in the context of the workplace. Manuti, Serifina, Scardigno, Giancaspro and Morciano (2015) suggested that further research into workplace learning needs to look at learning in practice within specific industries due to variation in different workplace practices and different contexts.

Formal mentoring is one type of intervention to facilitate workplace learning but it does not exist in isolation. It is influenced and can be influenced by other workplace learning activities (D’Abate et al., 2003) and by a variety of other factors, internal and external to the individuals involved and the organisation. Practitioners are aware that there are internal and external factors which influence the longevity and success of formal mentoring relationships; for instance: mentors being trained, mentees and mentors being matched appropriately and line management support (Cranwell-Ward et al., 2004; Megginson et al., 2006; Zachary, 2012).

Allen (2007) suggested that further investigation is needed into how specific workplace pressures, such as tight schedules and pressured deadlines, regular travel and long working hours may create an environment in which employees feel less able to mentor others. She goes on to suggest that

whilst individuals may decide to get involved in mentoring, despite these constraints, the amount of mentoring and the learning that it can provide may suffer. Garvey (2010) suggests that mentoring can be ineffective because of practical and logistical issues, relationship issues, and scheme and organisational-related issues. This research study seeks to build on this knowledge to further investigate the relationship and organisational and/or other contextual factors which help and hinder learning specifically. It is hoped that this will give HRD professionals and managers involved in mentoring, practical insights into what they can do to smooth the way for these relationships to thrive despite some organisational obstacles.

There have been some studies on moderating factors within mentoring (Hegstad & Wentling, 2005; Eby, Lockwood & Butts, 2006; Allen et al., 2006; Parise & Forret, 2008; Garvey, 2010; Thurston et al., 2012) but it is not sufficiently understood how context and organisational culture impact formal mentoring programmes, except perhaps in the educational context (Fletcher & Mullen, 2012). Only one study has been found which has directly investigated cultural influences on mentoring relationships within business, using the Cultural Framework Analysis Process (Kochan, Searby, George & Edge, 2015). However, to the authors knowledge there has been no research on how the organisational culture and social context may impact the learning for both parties within formal mentoring.

*'Mentoring cannot be understood in purely individual terms, as the activity of a single person. It is a relationship which the two participants conjointly initiate, form, sustain, exploit, benefit and suffer from, and ultimately terminate...The relationship is fostered and hindered in various ways by both parties; it is significantly coloured by the social context in which it occurs' (Levinson, 1996, p. 239).*

The current study will attempt to investigate the moderating factors within formal mentoring, in order to address our knowledge gap in relation to better understanding of how to minimise the hindering factors and increase the helping factors, so that learning can be maximised. This should also give HRD professionals insights into how best to plan, design, deliver and evaluate formal

mentoring programmes within their own organisation, and to ensure they meet individual and organisational expectations of success.

From an academic perspective, Kram (1988) suggested that an open systems perspective shows how the organisational context (the larger system) and the developmental relationship (the smaller system) influence which developmental functions are provided and supported. She suggested that the interaction of these two forces creates the relationship dynamics that will make a difference (positive or negative) to an individual's development. Ensher and Murphy (1997) requested that future research needed to investigate how the mentoring context (larger system) affects the type and amount of support offered (the smaller system) to mentees. However, almost 20 years on, this has still not been addressed adequately.

Some scholars have since discussed a number of moderating factors on learning generally (Lee, Fuller, Ashton, Butler, Felstead, Unwin & Walters, 2004; Eraut 2000, 2004, 2007; Eddy, Tannenbaum, Lorenzet, Smith-Jentsch, 2005; Stok-Koch, Bolhuis & Koopmans, 2007) and mentoring specifically (Hegstad & Wentling, 2005; Eby et al., 2006; Allen et al., 2006; Parise & Forret, 2008; Garvey, 2010; Thurston et al., 2012). However, research is limited on the impact of these moderating factors on learning and/or the influence of organisational culture (Kochan et al., 2015).

In short, there has been some research on how the organisational structure and context are significant factors which affect learning at work (Lee et al., 2004), with Eraut (2004) concluding that individuals' learning in the workplace is greatly influenced by the interpersonal skills, personality and learning orientation of their manager. Hegstad and Wentling (2005) cited facilitating and hindering factors for mentoring specifically, which included relationship factors (including those with line and senior managers) and communication factors. The later studies of Eby et al. (2006) and Allen et al. (2006) showed that mentors who felt that managers who were supporting the mentoring programme were more likely to see the benefits and rewards of being involved. A study by Stok-Koch et al. (2007) discussed the key domains that influenced workplace

learning and cited two characteristics which impeded workplace learning and they were an excessive workload and an unstable organisation. Parise and Forret's study (2008) showed that perceived management support is a critical factor that will influence motivation and willingness to participate in mentoring programmes. As can be seen, a common finding from moderating factors in mentoring research is the impact of managers choosing to actively support or block participation in mentoring programmes (Eraut, 2004; Hegstad & Wentling, 2005; Eby et al., 2006; Allen et al., 2006; Parise & Forret, 2008).

It seems clear that understanding the context and the specific culture of the workplace is key to understanding why certain aspects of a mentoring programme may be more or less effective than others. There have been calls for studies of formal mentoring to be conducted in multiple organisational sectors and settings (Garvey, Stokes & Megginson, 2014). This research is based within the UK National Health Service (NHS) and the UK Police Force. There has been much mentoring research within the NHS context (Stok-Koch et al., 2007; Steven, Oxley & Fleming, 2008; Mann, Ball & Watson, 2011), but there is still little research in relation to mentoring in the organisational context of the UK Police Force. Articles have been written about mentoring in the Nigerian Police (Aremu & Adeyoju, 2003), the Australian Police (Tyler & McKenzie, 2011) and various police services in the USA (Arter, 2006; Chaney, 2015), but very few articles have been written about mentoring in the UK Police (Carson, 2009; Flynn, 2010; Hamlin & Sage, 2011). This research will address this gap, as two out of the three case study organisations are within UK police forces.

In addition, it was felt that these two public sector organisations would be interesting to study as mentoring has been increasingly used as a development tool by many public sector organisations in the UK (Snell, 2009; CIPD Factsheet, 2015) and both organisations are similarly complex and have experienced a number of pressures and changes, over the last two decades too (Meaklim & Sims, 2011; Cribb, Disney & Sibieta, 2014). Enrich & Hansford (2008) reiterated that there are important differences between the private sector and in the public sector due to differences around control and accountability. They discuss the complex web of accountability that public sector organisations



have towards politicians, senior officers and the general public. The private sector also has issues with accountability but not with the same level of complexity, range or impact. Public sector organisations in the UK have a well-developed administrative, bureaucratic and hierarchical structure (Lowndes, 2005; Gingrich, 2014) which has been used to strictly control processes and ensure accountability; this is evident in both the NHS and Police with their very obvious and rigid hierarchical structures.

However in recent decades, the public sector has been subject to huge economic, political and social pressures in relation to changes in political leadership, recessions and changes in public expectations which have led to the need for institutional change (Chynoweth, 2015). New policies and priorities have needed to be adopted within the public sector to cope with this change, which has resulted in the need for different management approaches and different organisational structures and ways of leading and managing. For instance, women are demonstrating far more autonomy, inside and outside the home, than they ever have before. Giddons & Sutton (2013) refer to this as the 'bubbling diversity of change' whereby changing human factors which are taking place below Government level, which are not directly led by Government initiatives, but need to be responded to by them.

For instance, the new Police in the UK was established by the State in 1829 to ensure social control and public order on the streets (Weiner et al., 2001). A 'cult of masculinity' (Waddington, 2006) was established by the strong men who were sent out to deal with difficulties on the street. Policing 'was a man's world' (Wales Online, 2015) which ensured that men were given the more powerful positions and monitored/controlled the flow of talent through the hierarchy; even now within the Police it can still be seen that there are typically more men within the more active physical/Firearm type roles and more women within more office-based domestic/childcare type roles. In the last few decades, the purpose of the Police role has developed beyond the streets and into the private lives of citizens whereby the Police are dealing more with social, family/domestic issues. This has changed the priorities of policing towards a more socially responsible, community focused role. This in turn has created a shift in the structure of the organisation in relation to the composition of the jobs available towards more supportive, victim-support type roles. In theory, this should have

opened up more opportunities for women, and as a result created a more gender reflective, more equal workforce. Statistics show that an equal workforce in the Police has not been established yet; there are still only 21% of women in senior positions (National Statistics 2015), but attempts have been made through certain targeted learning and development activities to work towards this through mentoring programmes, high potential leadership development programmes and Springboard courses aimed at minority groups.

This has been the same experience in Healthcare whereby similarly the emphasis and purpose has changed from a more reactive masculine focus, creating fitness for war to a more proactive 21<sup>st</sup> century fitness for work focus, which again has created a need for change in relation to the composition of the work available, the workforce and the structures needed to manage and support them (Hays, 2012). According to Read (2013) there are 37% of women in senior medical roles in the NHS but still there are only 9% of women surgeons (BBC, 2013). Again, there are attempts through mentoring programmes and targeted training leadership/management programmes to redress this imbalance.

Also, how public sector organisations are managed and led during these new changing times has been a huge area of interest (Young & Daniel, 2003; Pate, Beaumont & Stewart, 2007; Snell, 2009; Meaklim & Sims, 2011) which has influenced the investment in managers and leaders learning and development and this in turn may have influenced the rise of mentoring within them. Therefore, it was felt due to the shifting nature of public sector organisations and the emphasis that is being placed on mentoring to support the changing leadership needs within them, that the NHS and Police would be interesting and topical case studies for this mentoring research.

In short, the present study has provided an opportunity to address the limited research in relation to the importance and influence of context on formal mentoring relationships generally, and more specifically within the changing structure of the NHS and the Police. It would not be possible to research the 'lived experience of mentoring' (Cohen, Manion & Morrison, 2011) within the three case study organisations addressed in this study, without recognising their changing context and the

influence this has on the mentors, mentees and the organisations that provide the mentoring programmes. With this in mind, the study will attempt to improve our understanding of the moderating factors in different public sector organisations which influence positively or negatively the learning outcomes for both the mentees and the mentors.

To summarise, the key problems are that we are using mentoring in the workplace, it is increasing in popularity but we do not fully understand it. There is not enough evidence or clarity within the practitioner or academic field to demonstrate the learning outcomes for both parties and what factors moderate the mentoring relationship over time. Therefore, the purpose of this doctoral research is to attempt to address these gaps within a selected NHS Trust Hospital and two police forces situated in the UK. It is hoped that these insights will be useful for practitioners and academics working in or interested in these contexts, with a view to improving understanding and making the most of any opportunities afforded by engaging in mentoring.

### **1.3 Methodological contribution – changes over time.**

As stated, this study attempts to make a strong practical contribution in terms of better understanding of formal mentoring and its relationship with learning and any moderating factors. This study also aims to make a methodological contribution in relation to how this learning and these moderating factors change over time, and in doing so provide a longitudinal study in the field of mentoring and learning research.

In 1983, Merriam declared that the literature and research design aspects of mentoring were relatively unsophisticated. Hagerty (1986) followed by suggesting that the literature confuses the person, the process, and the activities. Sixteen years later, Hansford et al. (2002) through their study of 151 business related research articles that mentioned mentoring, noted that 64% of the mentoring studies used surveys, 25% used interviews only, and the remainder a mixture of methods. Additionally, Wanberg et al. (2003) demonstrated that mentoring research had a predominant reliance on more positivist approaches within a business and industry context.

Wanberg et al. (2003) were very clear about the ambitious claims that were being made about mentoring and the limited evidence, and suggested researchers needed to specifically:

*'provide clear and consistent definitions of mentoring to study participants (important so a participant would not be considered a protégé in one study and without a mentor in the next), differentiate between formal and informal mentoring, ensure measurement instruments are content valid and psychometrically sound, rely less on protégé self-reports, incorporate more dyad analysis into research, increase the use of longitudinal research, and include appropriate control variables. Researcher's attention to these methodological issues when evaluating and refining models of mentoring will foster the maturation of the field' (p. 112).*

They claimed this type of research is needed to take the field of mentoring research from its infancy into maturity, and it is suggested by the author that this opinion is still relevant today.

Later, Lankau & Scandura (2007) and Allen et al. (2008) stated that mentoring research could still be characterised as primarily quantitative, correlational and cross-sectional with information gathered from a single source (normally the mentee) using a single method of collection. Four years later, St-Jean (2012) suggested that further studies needed to use a longitudinal perspective and consider the mentor's perspective too; confirmed by Jones (2012, 2013) and Garvey et al. (2014) expressing the need for more longitudinal studies. Garvey et al. (2014) went on to state that mentoring research still tended to demonstrate a widely established positivist tradition, and they suggested that future mentoring research should examine the effects on other stakeholders (mentors and sponsors) too.

In short, very few longitudinal studies had been carried out before, and those that had been did not include all phases of the mentoring lifecycle: Philip and Hendry (2000) at two points (at the start and six months in); Phinney et al. (2011) at two points (at the start and at the end) and Chun et al. (2012), at three different points, nor did they investigate both sides of the dyad. Very recently, Snoeren et al. (2016) confirmed that more qualitative, longitudinal research on both sides of the dyad is still required.

Also, the differing contexts of the respective organisations were not clearly defined or discussed, and so the studies yielded limited information on the external factors which might make a difference to the outcomes for the mentee and the mentor (Ragins and Scandura, 1997). Therefore, this PhD study seeks to make an important methodological contribution by addressing several academic concerns about the dominant positivist aspects of mentoring research. To achieve this a longitudinal qualitative case study approach has been used which involves both sides of the dyadic relationship, and pays attention to the changing aspects of learning and the mentoring context, throughout each phase of the mentoring lifecycle.

#### **1.4 Key research questions.**

As already discussed, the purpose of the study is to further investigate formal mentoring, learning and moderating factors. It is an analysis of learning within formal mentoring.

The overarching central or strategic question which guides this study is:

**What do mentees and mentors learn at different phases of the mentoring life-cycle and what factors moderate the learning process?**

The specific research questions to address this are as follows:

5. What do mentees and mentors perceive they are learning during their formal mentoring relationships?
6. How does the learning change over time for both parties?
7. What are the factors that moderate mentee and mentor learning during their formal mentoring relationships?
8. How do these moderating factors change over time for both parties?

### **1.5 Structure/content of following chapters.**

This introductory chapter has established what is known about formal mentoring within the world of both practice and theory, and has clarified the knowledge gaps in terms of learning outcomes and contextual factors. Chapter 2 will discuss the key literature in relation to ‘the workplace’, chapter 3 in relation to ‘mentoring’ and chapter 4 in relation to ‘learning.’ Chapter 5 will discuss the research ‘context’: the NHS and the Police in more detail, together with a discussion of the factors which help and hinder mentoring; the moderating factors.

This is then followed by the methodology chapter (chapter 6) discussing the research philosophy, approach and strategy behind this research and the specific research methods deployed. The findings chapters (chapter 7, 8, 9 and 10) outline the different domains in which the mentors and mentees perceived they were learning, and the key enabling and hindering factors from the contexts involved and how they changed over time. Finally, the study ends with a discussion of the key findings within the context of the theoretical introduction, with limitations of the study (chapter 11) and recommendations are made for future research and mentoring practice (chapter 12).

## **SECTION II – LITERATURE REVIEW**

### **The Workplace, Mentoring, Learning and Context**

This section discusses the changing nature of the workplace (chapter 2) and the origins of mentoring with a particular emphasis on formal mentoring and some key models (chapter 3). This is followed by a discussion of learning: key psychological theories of learning, adult learning theory and learning outcomes (chapter 4) and finally the last chapter (chapter 5), provides a review of the importance of context and organisational culture within mentoring, with a particular emphasis on the NHS and the Police, in the UK.

## **SECTION II – LITERATURE REVIEW**

### **The Workplace, Mentoring, Learning and Context**

A comprehensive literature review was carried out at the start of this PhD research project in order to gain a critical awareness and understanding of the subject area. Initially, in order to identify the gaps in the literature and to formulate the research focus and questions, a broad-based search was carried out to see what had been written broadly in the area of mentoring and workplace and then a more focussed search was carried out into learning and moderating factors within the workplace and mentoring. Once the research questions were established, a full and detailed systematic literature review (Bryman & Bell, 2015) was carried out with all the key terms or ‘identifiers’ (Gray, 2014), for instance mentees and mentor perceptions, mentoring phases, learning from mentoring, and moderating factors. This helped to locate the key literature, the key arguments and debates and conclusions drawn by others.

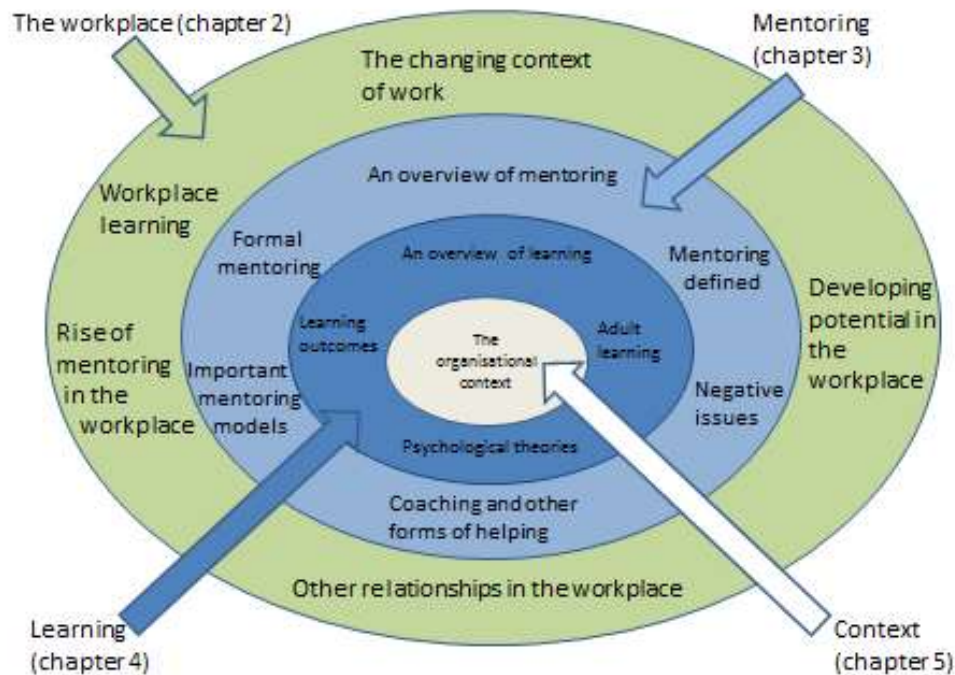
Often these terms generated a huge number of ‘hits’, which were scrolled through one by one, but over time, these were reduced by narrowing down and adding further terms. For instance: formal mentoring and learning outcomes, mentee and mentor perceptions of their learning. University bibliographic online databases were used to search for published material, for instance; books, journal articles, Conference papers and newspapers over very large business related databases. Also as the studies were situated within the healthcare, police and public sector professions; other related databases were targeted too. Unpublished articles were also searched through various online search engines, using the same search terms. Relevant references listed within other articles were also pursued directly, together with official publications from within the three case study organisations too.

As a result, this section discusses the key literature in relation to the changing workplace, mentoring and learning that has had a direct or indirect bearing on the research focus, purpose and



objectives of this PhD study, together with the context of the study. The model below (Fig. 2.1) helps to demonstrate the order and key aspects of this literature review section.

**Fig. 2.1** – The elements of the literature review



First the changing context of the workplace and the rise of mentoring within it will be discussed (chapter 2), followed by a discussion of the origins of mentoring, as a workplace learning and development intervention with a particular emphasis on formal mentoring and some key models (chapter 3). This is followed by a discussion of learning, as a key outcome from mentoring: key psychological theories of learning, adult learning theory and learning outcomes (chapter 4). Finally the last chapter (chapter 5), provides a review of the importance of the context and organisational culture which can help and/or hinder learning within mentoring, with a particular emphasis on the NHS and the Police case studies used.

## **2. The workplace**

### **2.1 The changing context of work**

The development of an interest in mentoring needs to be understood in the context of changing work relations in the UK economy.

Employment relations are concerned with how the ‘employment relationship’ between the two fundamental actors; workers and employers/managers, is regulated, experienced and contested within a climate of both potential for conflict and cooperation. The employment contract or the system of ‘wage-work’ that secures this relationship and the laws that enforce these contractual obligations is a defining feature of our capitalist market economy (Seifert, 1996; Williams, 2014). Employers ‘buy’ the capacity of workers to engage in productive effort from the external labour market, and once employed, workers move around and up/down through grades within the internal labour market.

The imbalance of power within this exchange between buyer (employer) and seller (employee), often favours the employer, and this power imbalance encourages workers to form collective bodies (Trade Unions) to represent and influence the terms of their wage-work agreement. Staff in the NHS remain highly unionised, while all warranted police officers below Superintendent must belong to the Police Federation. The principal actors in the employment relationship are employers (and employer associations) and their management representatives, employees and their trade union representatives, and the State.

The State enacts workplace legislation and policies as well as being today a huge employer in the UK. Marx (1995) discussed two approaches towards understanding the role of the State. First, it can be an instrument of class rule and repression, by the dominant capitalists i.e. through restricting the right to strike but also offering employers and unions the means to resolve disputes i.e. ACAS. Second it can be an instrument to win the favour of those they govern, for example, through the

Work and Families Act 2006, which in the short term may be unhelpful for businesses but in the longer term, can be argued to support the labour force and maintains the long term, viability of capitalism.

There have been dramatic changes and large shifts in the structure of employment in recent decades (Machin, 2002). Beck (2000) has seen these as involving a shift from a 'work society' to a 'knowledge society' whereby we have moved away from more stable work relations to a flexible, fragmented, de-regulated risk taking regime (Morris, 2004). Such a shift reflects underlying changes in the economic structure and changes in ideas and policy.

The labour market (the supply and demand of labour) is affected by the political, economic, legal and social context (Lipsey & Chrystal, 2015) and specifically the changes in the composition and demographics of economically active population, the changing rate of employment and changing requirements for skills. There has been a shift in the composition of employment away from declining manufacturing industries, towards the expansion of the service sector. This has created a shift in the demographics of the workplace with more women in service sector jobs and changes in the composition of work towards more part time workers, within the private sector. There has also been a move away from highly unionised workplaces - trade union strongholds tended to be in manufacturing and large public sector organisations. These changes have been reinforced by changes in ideas and policy which have suggested that we now have a 'new' economy built on neo-liberal economics (Morris, 2004; Chomsky, 2012) and individualism (Legge, 2005). This is claimed to have led to a reduction in the importance of the employment relationship as some individuals become increasingly self-employed, on freelance or temporary contracts or even work without a contract.

As a result, the growth of flexible employment patterns in the new networked information society (Legge, 2005) have in part driven an increase in 'knowledge workers' and knowledge-based jobs whereby workers are not just receivers and users of knowledge but they generate knowledge.

Legge (2005) refers to the knowledge worker concept as fashionable yet elusive. The suggestion is

that these knowledge workers can be more self-directing and exercise more discretion, autonomy and movement within their job roles, which in turn is transforming the nature of work itself (Williams, 2014). The flexible firm model (Atkinson, 1984) suggests that employees operate within core and peripheral groups. The more privileged core workers are offered flexibility as they have the opportunity to become multi-skilled and move about the core business (like knowledge workers) but the peripheral workers are considered more disposable and receive less job security (this can apply to highly skilled professionals too). For instance, organisations are now using more part time, more self-employed, more flexible or non-standard labour (e.g. zero hours contracts/agency labour) to strategically align the supply of their workers with the demands of their business.

This flexible firm model has been criticised for exaggerating the degree of strategic intent and for not recognising the strengths it gives to increasing the management prerogative. The model is said to have weakened unions and created a more intensified workplace (Williams 2014). It has increased segmentation of the workforce, inequalities and the development of organisational insiders and outsiders (Kalleberg, 2003). In this context, employees can feel increasingly insecure in the workplace and the 'job for life' has been replaced by 'managed careers,' whereby it is accepted that people will develop career paths through a number of different organisations and are more likely to travel further for employment opportunities (Morris, 2004). This coupled with recent economic recession in 2008 has led to huge organisational downsizing/restructuring and marketization of public services in the UK. This has increased the number of job losses and feelings of workplace insecurity. As a result, organisational structures have changed and emphasis on collective bargaining arrangements within the public sector have changed too in the last three decades. For instance, the structure of the NHS is radically different from 20 years ago (Gennard & Judge, 2010) and therefore, this has meant changes to how it manages its employment relations.

New technologies have also demanded employers recruit more highly skilled, and more highly qualified employees. This has created a two tier system in the workplace; lower skilled and higher skilled employees; whereby higher wages are biased toward the higher qualified and skilled.

Employers need a certain amount of each type of worker, within these differentiated skills levels (Machin, 2002).

It is not surprising then to see new ideas developing about the nature of the work relationship and these have strongly affected the analysis of human resource management and development.

Human Resource Management (HRM) as an approach to employment management (Storey, 2007) replaced the term Personnel Management in the late 1980's/early 1990's as a postmodern phenomenon influenced by increased globalisation and heightened competition within markets. The intention of HRM (later described as Strategic HRM) is to formulate and integrate people management policies to support delivery of the organisation goals (Storey, 2007) and to increase the levels of employee commitment to ensure increased performance and more positive outcomes (Guest, 1998) or in short, involves strategies and approaches towards managing labour (Bach, 2005).

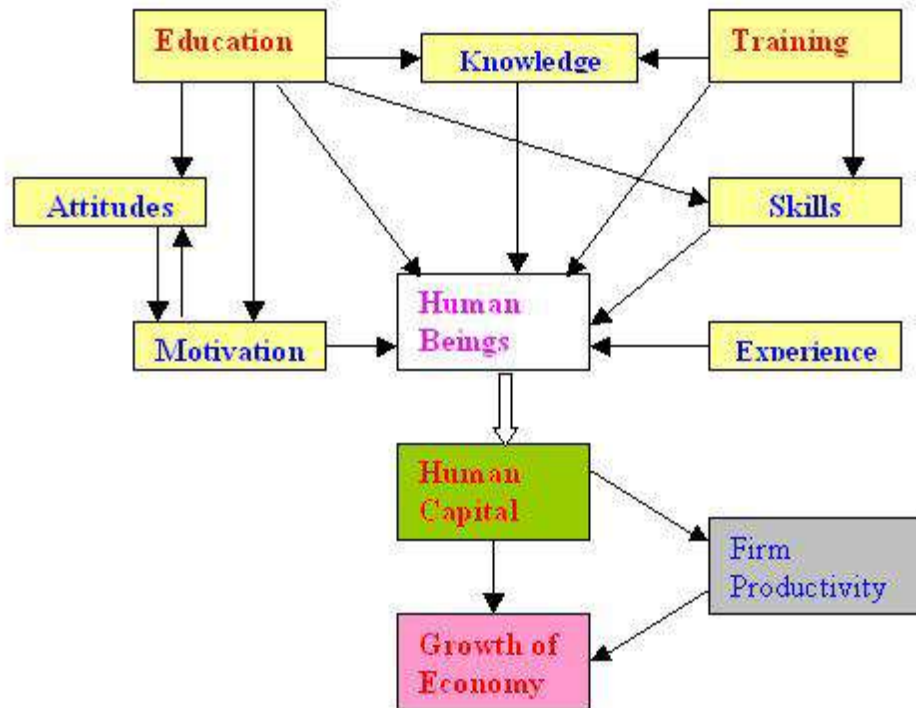
Employee Relations as a key aspect of HRM in relation to trade unions, collective agreements, discipline and grievance came to be supplemented by a greater emphasis on other aspects of labour management including recruitment, selection, remuneration, job design, training and development. The training and development aspects of HRM have evolved now under the title of Human Resources Development (HRD) and/or Learning and Development (L&D) and have since developed into a more critical, strategic and business-oriented arena (Rigg, Stewart & Trehan, 2007) aimed at leading transformation and change. With this in mind, HRD includes all aspects of learning, education and development within the workplace. In short, organisations 'buy' labour services and 'sell' learning and development opportunities (Bosworth et al, 1993).

*'Finding ways in which diverse learning experiences, effective for both employee and organisation, are provided is a challenging task for organisations and their training and development specialists. Yet it is one that holds considerable potential for serious and immensely worthwhile returns in both material and affective domains for workers and organisations in the coming decades' (Casey, 1999, p.26).*

Additionally, these changing ideas draw on other concepts about the nature of the worker/employee and their training and development. Human capital theory, for example, is linked to the idea of differentiated labour as it is concerned with characteristics i.e. knowledge, skills, abilities and capacity to develop and innovate (Lipsey & Chrystal, 2015; CIPD Factsheet, 2015), that individuals attain through schooling, work/life experiences and training that increase their productivity, earnings and ultimate worth to the organisation. Investment in human capital is costly. The suggestion is that the greater the human capital, the greater the level of productivity in the workplace as more highly skilled, more highly paid employees can more independently carry out work without the need for constant management supervision. Individual decisions to acquire human capital in the long run help to 'erode disequilibrium' within income differentials (Lipsey & Chrystal, 2015.)

Human capital is concerned with the quality of the labour supply and the value that people add to organisations (Baron & Armstrong, 2007). Developing human capital in the workplace not only ensures that workers have the best current knowledge to do their job but this also leads to advancing their knowledge for the future, leading to greater creativity and better decision making, and ultimately individual and organisational growth. With this in mind, organisations can augment their human capital by recruiting educated and skilled workers and by investing in targeted learning and development opportunities that improve employee satisfaction, their performance and ultimately the organisations competitive advantage (del Valle & Castillo, 2009; Khan, 2014). Fig 2.2 shows the relationship between education, training, human capital and organisational productivity.

**Fig 2.2** - Showing the effects of Education & Training on human beings and converting them into human capital and effects of human capital on economic growth



Source: Khan, 2014, p.103.

Interestingly this Fig 2.2 shows that training directly affects knowledge and skills but not attitudes or motivation, yet education affects all four areas. In addition, experience is not connected to education nor training, nor knowledge. Also according to Khan (2014), research suggests that those with higher educational attainment and higher occupational status are more likely to receive training.

Due to globalisation and the notion of human capital becoming more internationalised, new problems of advanced modern capitalism are emerging (Boud & Garrick, 1999) whereby the flexibility of labour and capital are intertwined but are not evenly spread. This has created an economic driven, market-orientated approach to learning. There has also been a social agenda driven approach aimed at increasing the education and learning of our UK citizens beyond their job

expectations, in order to encourage a greater contribution to society as a whole. This includes various government funded initiatives, including within the mentoring arena, which are discussed later on in this chapter.

The quality of the workforce has a strong and stable relationship with economic growth. Therefore, an understanding of human capital theory is especially key for those who develop and align the human capital strategy with the business strategy (Phillips & Phillips, 2015), in relation to attracting, recruiting, training and retaining the right employees (often the domain of the Human Resources/HRM function) , and to those who wish to develop the learning of the workforce to be able to cope with economic and social changes, (often the domain of the Learning and Development/HRD function).

In summary, the workplace has become a basis for learning on two levels; the first is to develop the organisation through contributing to increased productivity, effectiveness and innovation. The second is through employees sharing their knowledge, skills and competencies to further their own learning both as employees, but also beyond the workplace as citizens in the wider community (Boud & Garrick, 1999). This suggests a correlation between the investment in training and positive outcomes (del Valle & Castillo, 2009; Khan, 2014). However, Tzafrir (2005) suggests that training can also be a huge cost and risk to the business if trained employees subsequently do not demonstrate the expected commitment, or they leave the organisation. Therefore, it is imperative for organisations to invest in the learning and development interventions that are right for the business and the individual and that ultimately yield the largest returns on investment, for both parties.

It is important for this doctoral study to understand what is changing within the labour market, how this may affect human capital and ultimately how this shapes the need for value added workplace learning interventions. The next section will discuss workplace learning in more detail.



## 2.2 Workplace learning.

*'In a world where the value of being part of a stable and supportive family and community is often being eroded, many citizens are looking to the world of work to provide some extra meaning, self-worth and sustenance in their lives' (Rylatt, 2001, p. 19).*

This quote suggests that a focus on workplace learning is one way to address putting more meaning back into our (working) lives. Bratton, Mills, Pyrch & Sawchuk (2008) suggest that in response to aspects which have reshaped the way in which we work (globalization, privatization and deregulation), we are driven to continually focus on learning in the workplace, to keep up.

According to Rylatt (2001), workplace learning is a strategy to develop people within the workplace to achieve organisational competitive advantage and is an ongoing, lifelong activity. Rylatt suggests that both individual and organisational needs must be met through learning, suggesting a unitary perspective whereby goals of managers and workers would be connected and shared but does not mention the potential organisational tensions and politics within the workplace which may impede this (Bratton et al., 2008). Bratton et al. (2008) state that workplace learning has become a well-known metaphor for capturing all formal, informal, self-directed and collective learning activities.

Rylatt (2001) suggests a more managerialist approach to workplace learning yet Bratton et al. (2008) represent a more critical perspective suggesting that workplace learning strengthens the capitalist employment relationship by increasing the manager's power and serves the economic needs of the organisation only. They suggest a 'family of practices' approach for workplace learning in the future to move beyond the 'commodification' of life directed by capitalism and organisational efficiency into a future more mindful of an individuals social, political, economic, cultural, and spiritual needs (Bratton et al., 2008).

Taylor and Furnham (2005) suggest that the purpose of learning at work is to help people gain new knowledge or better skills, and/or develop new values and behaviours so that they can perform

more effectively at work. Boud & Garrick (1999) add that workplace learning is not only concerned with competencies for the here and now but for the future too.

There are many ways that learning is encouraged at work, either through informal or formal interventions. McCall et al. (1988) suggested the concept of 70:20:10 and Jennings (2008) popularised it. They proposed that the majority (70%) of learning in the workplace comes through experience in the workplace (Eraut, 2007), 20% from social learning with colleagues and 10% from formal learning interventions. This suggests that 90% of all learning in the workplace is through informal methods. He suggests that employers need to commit to an informal mind-set first if they are to get the most out of the learning experiences in the workplace (Faragher, 2014). This is an interesting shift for HRD professionals to take in, as traditionally the focus of the HRD portfolio has been formal programmes managed by themselves to more informal programmes supported by themselves. Also, informal development is not necessarily as easy to cost, plan for, measure and evaluate the return on investment.

The Chartered Institute of Personnel and Development (CIPD) survey (2015) suggests that the majority of workplace training interventions offered by organisations are on-the-job training, in-house development programmes, coaching by line managers or peers (stating that over three quarters of all organisations surveyed offered coaching and/or mentoring with two fifths using in-house coaches/peers and line managers), e-learning, external conferences and events, and instructor led training off the job. These have remained the most common and most effective over at least the last five years of the survey. This suggests a mixture between formal (in-house programmes, e-learning, external events and instructor-led programmes) and potentially informal (on the job and coaching). There is an expectation in the same report that four of these will continue to grow and that the formal external conferences and instructor-led courses will decline in usage over the next two years.

The 70:20:10 model was meant to also show that the three aspects should not be viewed in isolation but were interdependent, that is, that coaching and mentoring programmes worked best

when they were supported by on-the-job development (McCall et al., 1988). This is perhaps why the idea of a blended approach to learning in the workplace is rising in popularity amongst professional trainers and developers, although typically blended learning tends to involve e-learning with a formal intervention, such as instructor led training (CIPD, 2015). This CIPD report also shows that external coaching is declining (formal) but that collaborative and social learning is expected to increase too (informal).

Ebbinghaus (1987) posits a forgetting curve, suggesting that 90% of what is learnt in a formal classroom situation is forgotten within 30 days and 60% after 1 hour. Harrison (1998) also suggested that only 10-20% of what is trained is transferred into work. These statistics remind L&D Professionals that in order to ensure learners have retained the new knowledge or skill they must understand how to and be able to put this into practice almost immediately to ensure valuable learning is not lost. Goleman (1996) suggested we need to appreciate the emotional intelligence aspects of learning, to help explain why traditional training methods fail to be remembered or make a longer term impact. He suggests that the emotional brain learns differently. The neo-cortex is linked to cognitive/technical skills learning; it learns quickly and makes direct links to existing knowledge. The emotional brain learns completely differently to the neo-cortex, through repetition, practice and through models which help to create habit change (Parsloe & Wray, 2004). This suggests that formal programmes may well help to target the neo-cortex as long as links are made back into the workplace but that informal learning provides better opportunities to embed the experiences through practice. In conclusion within the CIPD (2015) report it states that it is important for the Learning and Development function to ensure that learning is accessible anywhere, anytime through a variety of channels.

Jennings (2010) discusses the main barriers to workplace learning from the point of view of the L&D Department as inefficiency (too much focus on inputs and less on outputs), inertia (slowly adapting to change), convenience (giving what is asked for, not necessarily what is needed), lack of a business mind-set (too much of a training only mind-set) and lack of manager engagement in L&D activities. This final point builds on the work by Broad (1997) suggesting that those managers

who are encouraged to find the time to be involved with the training and development of their employees have teams with a much improved work performance. Jennings (2010) suggests that without effective management engagement, we might as well not bother with L&D, as if L&D efforts stood alone, they would become 'sub-optimal.' This is discussed in more detail in the following context section.

It is important for this doctoral study to understand what is changing within workplace learning and what the other L&D options may be to address learning for adults within the workplace and where mentoring may fit in. The CIPD survey confirms that mentoring is on the rise but also that traditional formal training approaches are reducing. This is linked to adult learning theory (discussed later) in relation to individuals wanting more tailored, individualised and facilitated support for their own learning and not wanting to be in large classrooms being taught 'en masse'.

### **2.3 The rise of mentoring in the workplace.**

'The Friendly Visiting Movement' (now the Big Brothers, Big Sisters movement, 2008), together with the academic studies of Levinson et al. (1978), generated interest in the US around mentoring. They claim that they discovered the phenomenon of mentoring as a business and career development tool. It is important to note that Levinson et al.'s study was based on interviews with a small sample of only 40 men, but it was followed up by a longitudinal study by Vaillant in the late 1970's (as cited in Merriam, 1983) of 95 Harvard graduates (again all men) showing how mentors supported these high potential men to adapt and to cope with their successful lives.

However, much of the initial excitement over mentoring in business and industry came from an article in the Harvard Business Review, which claimed that professionals who had mentors reported higher levels of career satisfaction, earned more money at a younger age and were better educated (Roche 1979). Another article followed later that year, again discussing how 'everyone who makes it, has a mentor' (Collins & Scott, 1979). The first article by Roche was based on a survey of approximately 4000 Executives and only 31% responded. According to Hagerty (1986) a

cause-and-effect relationship was never established in this research, and importantly the Collins and Scott article was only based on three interviews.

Despite questions over the validity of some of these earlier studies, this was the start of the male dominated business world recognising the value of formally linking the novice with the expert (DeMarco, 1993). More recently research conducted by Allen et al., (2004) demonstrated similar results and found that mentored individuals did receive more promotions and higher salaries than non-mentored counterparts, and reported that they had more career and job satisfaction too.

Although business has produced the greatest number of articles and data-based studies on mentoring (Merriam, 1983), mentoring over the last 30 plus years has been adopted particularly in the public sector supporting teaching, nursing and career guidance professions as well as in the private sector supporting the development of the business managers (Colley, 2002). Megginson & Clutterbuck (2005) suggest that mentoring is a US import which they have helped to bring to the UK and adapt to the differing UK cultural and business context. However, Strathern (1997) argues that such imports often consist in the unrecognised return of earlier exports. Parsloe & Wray (2004) state that both coaching and mentoring have a role to play towards meeting the learning and development needs of an increasingly complex world of work and community.

As already mentioned, within the last three decades, in response to increased competition and globalisation, the world of work has been constantly changing, becoming more challenging, turbulent and unpredictable (Cohen, 1999). Technology is rapidly improving and advancing and so managing in the new economy requires different ways of working and doing business. Employees are expected to achieve more with fewer resources and managers/leaders are expected to manage within flatter organisational structures, across global and more diverse markets, whilst developing new operational and strategic skills. This has increased demands on the individuals for self development, flexibility and change and so mentoring (and coaching) is increasingly being proposed as a development tool and support mechanism, to help all employees at all levels to adjust more readily to these changing times (Cranwell-Ward et al., 2004).

*'The old methods of purposeful planning, systematic arrangement, command and control, status and hierarchy may now no longer be the best approach when learning, knowledge exchange and development are the key business drivers. These values may need to give way to greater autonomy, experimentation, exploration and genuine facilitation of learning as a process to add value' (Garvey et al., 2009, p. 106).*

For instance, professional nursing has suffered from educational, recruitment and retention challenges over the last decade and it has since been recognised that role socialisation and career development are a useful ongoing development process (to both the employer and the employee) that can lead to greater job satisfaction and commitment within the workplace. Using a more experienced person as a 'supervisor of practice' to guide and to support the less experienced nurses within a 'mentorship' scheme has been the cornerstone of this initiative both in the UK and beyond (Papastravrou, Lambrinou, Tsangari, Saarikoski & Leino-Kilpi, 2010.)

Mentoring in the workplace is becoming more popular than traditional training interventions as it is more personal and tailored to the individual and ultimately is proving to be a cost-effective way of embedding long-term movement and change in an organisation's culture and operations. Year on year, the afore mentioned CIPD Learning and Development surveys (2005 to 2015) show the rise in the use of coaching and mentoring across both public and private sector organisations. The 2015 survey showed that traditional training methods (on-the-job training and in-house development programmes) still remain the two most commonly used, but that other methods are rising in popularity with coaching and mentoring schemes listed as the third most popular, followed by e-learning. Interestingly, coaching/mentoring by line managers was predicted by the CIPD 2015 annual survey to be the highest area of growth in the next two years. This survey report also looked at talent management activities and the respondents suggested that in-house development programmes are still the most used, citing coaching and mentoring as the next top key activities. The report also credits coaching as the most effective talent management activity, with mentoring a close third. However, it is important to note that this survey only attained 541 responses, and that most of these were from HR professionals in mostly UK private sector organisations.

Consequently, the survey results cannot be seen as representative of all businesses in the United Kingdom.

There is also a trend to suggest that modern-day employees/adult learners are now requesting learning and development activities that are more individualised, more learner-centred, and more flexible (Knowles, Holton III & Swanson, 2015). This finding lends support to the 2015 CIPD survey report which discusses the importance and rise of both coaching and mentoring interventions in the workplace. Other writers have argued (Hezlett & Gibson, 2007) that the increased interest in mentoring had expanded due to an increased awareness in the workplace for continuous learning, an emphasis on informal learning and on-the-job development, and an increased emphasis on individuals taking responsibility for directing and managing their own personal development and career progression.

*'Learning from training programs and books will not be sufficient to keep pace with required competencies for success in today's fast-paced work environment. Individuals often must look to others to learn new skills and keep up with the demands of their jobs and professions. Mentoring relationships can serve as a forum for such personal learning in organizations.'* (Lankau & Scandura, 2007, p. 95).

It is important for this doctoral study to understand why mentoring is increasing in popularity in the workplace as this supports the proposition made in the introduction chapter that it is increasing in use, that it is here to stay and supports the need to know more about it.

## **2.4 Using mentoring to develop potential in the workplace.**

Organisations frequently use formal mentoring programmes to give new individuals a head start in acquiring an understanding of the organisation and how best to be effective but also aim mentoring at graduate recruits to high flyers to senior managers, in order to achieve improved performance for the individual and thus the organisation (Collings & Mellahi, 2009). Mentoring is a way to show

employees that their contributions are recognised, important and valued, and to further encourage them to improve their productivity and performance.

Mentoring supports the potential of leaders and managers too. Due to the increasing speed, scope and depth of change, leaders and managers are confronted with a multiplicity of new demands on their mental ability and judgement, psychological stability, emotional stability and general well-being (Cohen, 1999; Chun et al., 2012). Also, as senior jobs are involving increasing pressure and work-life balance is being threatened, leaders and managers are having to face up to their own needs for continuous improvement, personal career planning and developing new key skills; for example emotional intelligence (Gibson, 2004; Clutterbuck & Megginson, 2004.) A large study of 250 executives in the UK by Willcox (1987) found that over half of them agreed that mentoring had played a key part in their success and that exposure to different leadership styles positively contributed to their further development. However, there have been criticisms of this now dated large scale research (Wanberg et al., 2003), particularly as there was difficulty in isolating mentoring from other contributing factors. In a much later, smaller scale study, Chun et al. (2012) discovered a positive correlation between Korean mentors and their impact on the transformational leadership behaviours of their mentees and found that mentors giving career related support was directly linked to mentees' organisational commitment and well being.

Diversity and mentoring have also been the focus of considerable research attention (Wanberg et al., 2003; Devos, 2007; Chandler & Ellis, 2011) and an often-touted outcome is the assistance that mentoring might provide in helping women and minority groups to gain access to personal networks needed to navigate often complex social and organisational environments (Wanberg et al., 2003; Gibson, 2004). Changes in the demographics, greater international competition and potential skills shortages in the UK have forced businesses to recognise and support the development of the increasing number of economically active women and minority groups within the workforce (Perrons, 2003). Ragins & Scandura's (1994) study of mentored male and female executives found that men and women reported the same mentoring outcomes and another with Ragins & Scandura (1997), with 142 matched pairs, suggested that women were as dependent as



men on mentoring relationships, have as many mentoring relationships, and are just as likely to terminate them as men. Empirical evidence suggests mentoring is becoming especially relevant to issues of diversity, revealing the importance of mentoring support whilst women still contend with the 'glass ceiling' in today's organisations (Gibson, 2004) and the self-imposed 'sticky floor' (Shambaugh, 2007.)

It is important to understand how mentoring can be used in organisations to develop potential and support progression in the workplace. The formal mentoring programmes used in the three case study organisations for this doctoral study were aimed at either those studying a higher level qualification (NHS), women with aspirations to progress to higher levels (Police case study 1) and high potential employees (Police case study 2.) Understanding the purpose of the mentoring programmes will be key to understanding the outcomes expected and gained.

## **2.5 Other relationships in the workplace.**

Mentoring is not the only effective learning and development relationship in the workplace. Other developmental relationships, for instance coaching and counselling, are mentioned in the next chapter but here the importance of a number of workplace relationships and networks are discussed.

Zachary (2000) suggests that:

*'learning is influenced by past experience and current situations. There is a whole ecology involved in creating a climate for growing. Ecology is the constellations of forces, which is always present, pushing, pulling, and directing our actions in the present moment...we each have a personal ecology – a web of relationships and forces that play in our lives at any given moment' (p. 18).*

Kram (1988) suggests that the key to career success is not just about finding a mentor. She claims this is an oversimplification as individuals are subjected to a number of workplace relationships that could contribute to this success. In short, almost 30 years ago she observed that a mentor alone did not ensure career success and yet most of our definitions of mentoring seem to suggest a one-to-one relationship, in isolation (Garvey, Stokes & Megginson, 2009). Five years later, McCauley and Young (1993) were agreeing that a variety of relationships have the potential to be developmental (for managers) including their peers, their bosses, teachers and so on. They state that relationships can serve multiple purposes, not just developmental, as they can also provide information, advice, resources and political backing. McCauley and Young (1993) suggest that one single relationship cannot possibly provide all the assistance an employee needs to aid their personal development and so employees need multiple developmental relationships.

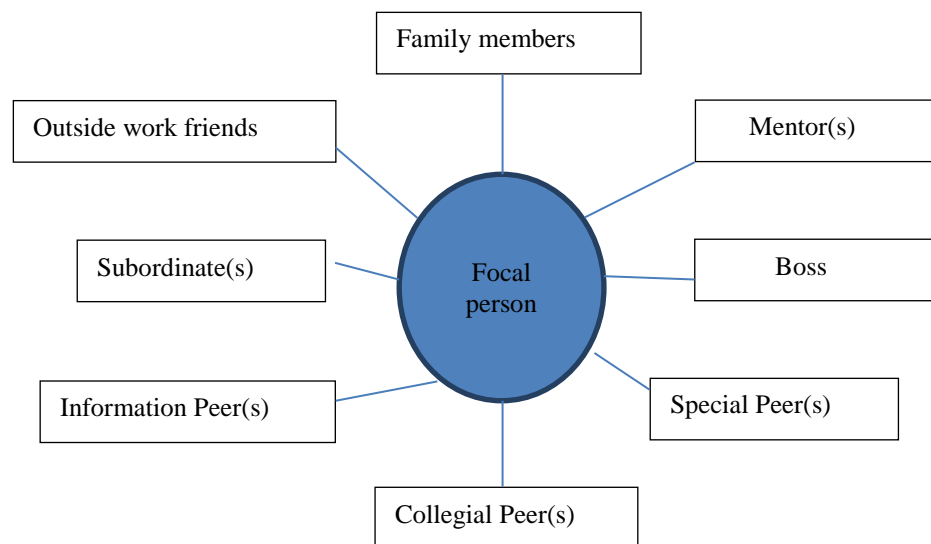
More recently, key authors (Garvey et al., 2009; Higgins & Kram 2001) have suggested that people are part of a wider learning network and that mentoring is only one of these key roles. And as a result, some researchers have proposed reconceptualising our idea of mentoring to include the mentee's other developmental relationships (Gibson, 2005). With this in mind, Douglas and McCauley (1999), and Higgins and Kram (2001) discuss that mentoring research should be expanded beyond the single dyadic relationship to include other developmental relationships. In fact, Kram's (1985) seminal work originally set out to study mentoring relationships only but ended up looking at a variety of relationships which provided mentoring functions, in other words peer relationships. She noted that a variety of peer relationships can provide a range of developmental functions, similar to those observed in mentor relationships, but also they offered several unique attributes of mutuality, increased availability and a longer duration than mentoring.

Relationships with managers, subordinates, family and friends can also provide a range of development functions throughout an individual's career and this range, including mentors and peers, is called by Kram (1988) the 'constellation of relationships' (p. 200). Kram (1988) suggests that organisational context and structure will influence characteristics of the constellation relationships and how they unfold over time.

Even before Kram's work, Hinde (1981) in the context of personal relationships stated that all relationships are set in a nexus of other relationships. Hinde (1981) goes on to say that relationships help shape individuals but that individuals shape the relationship in return. These individuals also have relationships with others and these influence both the individual and their relationships with others.

Fig. 2.3 shows the different relationships that an individual can have both within and outside the workplace.

**Fig. 2.3 - The Relationship Constellation**



Source: Kram (1988) p. 149.

Kram's (1988) relationship constellation model shows that relationships with those employees in higher levels, lower levels and the same levels, family and friends are essential sources of support. Her research showed that these were particularly important during times of large transition and within the process of career development, as confirmed by Higgins and Kram (2001) and Gibson (2005) in later research.

It is important to understand the different relationships that can support an individual in times of change and times of career progression as this is relevant to this doctoral study. It shows that relationships are important within the workplace and that mentoring does not exist in isolation, so other relationships need to be taken into account to fully understand the learning experiences of both mentors and mentees. Also, 'other relationships' are an interesting moderating factor that is discussed in the findings later.

Building on this, social capital theory focusses on human capital networks, the relationships within and between them and the norms which govern them (Schuller, 2016). Field (2003) discusses that at the heart of all social capital theory is the notion that relationships matter. He suggests that through a series of connections and networks individuals tend to share common values and form a resource or a type of social capital to achieve more.

*'Within the social capital literature, the term social network has been used to refer to the set of social connections between entities (e.g. individuals or groups). This set of relationships may be characterized in several ways, including the number of people who are part of it, the number of ties or connections between people, and the pattern or configuration of the ties...social networks are constructs within social capital theory' (Nahapiet & Ghosal, 1998, pp.386-387).*

In short, individuals create social ties in order to gain access to others' resources in the wider network and the suggestion is that those with these social ties are more likely to achieve favourable career outcomes (Hezlett & Gibson, 2007). The perception is that having a structured set of contacts/ties creates some value or return on investment. These ties have an internal and an external focus.

According to Seibert, Kraimer & Liden (2001) and James (2000) social network variables have a causal influence on mentoring functions but Wanberg et al. (2003) disagreed and suggested the opposite with their model of formal mentoring, showing that mentoring functions influenced the

development of social networks. Hezlett and Gibson (2007) later stated that mentoring and other kinds of social networks are mutually supportive and not competitive.

Higgins and Kram (2001) proposed a typology for differentiating developmental networks based on the range of developmental relationships diversity (number of different social systems a person has) and the level of developmental relationships strength (the strength of interpersonal bonds between individuals). The suggestion is that traditional mentoring, where a mentor is the primary supportive relationship, is within the low diversity/strong tie section and as such can be differentiated from other workplace relationships. With this in mind, Hezlett and Gibson (2007) suggest that we should not assume that all social ties in the workplace are equal.

The source of the tie is important but it will not ensure career success by its sheer existence, therefore the content or quality is also important (Hezlett & Gibson 2007). Also, according to Garvey et al. (2009) in a human developmental network, the learner is connected with a variety of strong and weak connections, where each one offers support to one another and they learn from each other. The suggestion is that the more the individual is engaged in the social world around them, the more likely they will learn. Garvey et al. (2014) later stated that many people are part of a 'learning network' with mentoring and coaching being among many other developmental roles.

Recognising that it has been estimated that the average adult has more than 1000 informal ties (considered as mutually recognizable others) through their lifetime, Brass (1995) introduces his social network perspective which suggests that social structures in any business can be viewed as a network. This network perspective focuses on the interrelationships among the 'actors,' rather than the actors themselves and he suggests that different relationships represent a series of different ties which include communication, friendship, kinship and information exchange. In other words, a strong tie strategy could be a close personal relationship with a mentor or a weak tie strategy may be a mixture of weaker relationships with disconnected or diverse groups, to help with networking. Brass (1995) suggests that there is a limit to how many links an individual can maintain and so suggests having links to 'central others' is more important than 'peripheral others' (p. 66). These

interrelationships will determine the individual's social position within the organisation and will provide opportunities and constraints on their behaviours, and their ultimate success.

Also Brass (2001) suggests that trust is built in strong tie relationships.

*'Strong tie relationships have been described as friendships. Individuals who are friends are likely to be willing to be vulnerable and share the expectation that risks will be rewarded...This suggests that benefits flowing from trust should be associated with strong-tie relationships' (Hezlett & Gibson, 2007, p. 401)*

According to Barbulescu (2005) empirical research has shown that strong ties exhibit the highest level of trust and that stronger relationships will be more likely to promote the friendship elements of intimacy, reciprocity and self disclosure. Garvey (2014) suggests that having a genuine, honest and friendship type intent is key as holistic development is only possible in an open and honest environment.

Duck (1986) discusses the seven reasons why we need friendships, as it gives us: (i) a sense of belonging, (ii) emotional integration and stability (friends share our values and concerns), (iii) an opportunity to communicate about ourselves, (iv) assistance and physical support, (v) reassurance of our worth and value, (vi) an opportunity to help others (friends give us a chance to help them) and (vii) personality support (friends share our way of thinking). In addition, they help us to see right and wrong and they tend to have similar attitudes and beliefs to us.

Kram (1988) discusses friendship as a key aspect of mentoring relationships and indeed a key part of the mentoring function, within the psychosocial function. However, she goes on to suggest that there are limits to the friendship function at work as individuals tend to restrict their social interactions in the workplace, in order to reduce conflict and maintain a respectable distance, for instance from their managers (Kram, 1988).

Social exchange theory (Emerson, 1976) is another interesting lens in which to view the exchanges within any workplace relationship. It proposes that individuals develop, maintain and exit relationships depending on the perceived benefits or otherwise to them (Young & Perrewe, 2000; Eby & Lockwood, 2004; Baranik et al., 2010). Relationships can be seen as a positive or negative experience or both, but people tend to maintain those that they perceive are beneficial to them. Throughout any workplace relationship, a series of exchanges will take place (for instance encouragement, support, friendship) and people are more likely to maintain these relationships (by committing to meeting up, completing actions agreed) where the benefits outweigh the costs, for instance the cost of their own effort. So in terms of mentoring, the suggestion is that as long as both parties perceive they are learning and gaining from the relationship, they are more likely to continue the mentoring exchange. In short, relationships in the workplace are underpinned by the importance of our social networks, personal relationships (however defined) and friendships. They are seen as a valuable asset to our survival and effectiveness in the workplace.

This discussion is relevant to this doctoral research as it demonstrates that a variety of social networks exist in the workplace and that trust and friendship are important components. It also suggests that those mentors/mentees who have this as part of their mentoring relationships are more likely to be satisfied, have the more effective mentoring relationships and more outcomes.

## **2.6 Summary.**

This chapter has discussed the changing context of work, the rise of mentoring in the workplace and other workplace relationships. The next chapter (chapter 3) will discuss the history of mentoring, definitions, formal mentoring and some key mentoring models.

## Chapter 3 - Mentoring

Mentoring has been around for many years in a variety of forms, and formally within organisations for approximately 30 years. This chapter will discuss the history and development of mentoring over time, mentoring definitions, how mentoring is different from other forms of development intervention and different mentoring models.

### 3.1 An overview of mentoring.

Mentoring is a complex, social and psychological activity (Roberts, 2000) that incorporates different disciplines, including business, health, education, psychology and other social sciences. Garvey et al., (2014) states that mentoring has a very long history and some accounts (Roberts, 2000; Colley, 2002; Daloz, 2012; Garvey et al., 2014) suggest that the history of mentoring can be traced back to Greek Mythology and Homer's Odyssey. The tale discusses the King, Odysseus, going to war and leaving his son, Telemachus (sometimes written as Telemakhos), with his old friend Mentor. Mentor was an older, wiser, 'classic transitional figure' (Daloz, 2012, p.20); both caring for and training his son from youth to adulthood by sharing his knowledge, experience and wisdom. This shows the mentor to be 'an experienced and trusted adviser' (Oxford Dictionaries, 2016) sponsoring, supporting and developing an individual. Daloz (2012) suggested that:

*'Mentors are guides. They lead us along the journey of our lives. We trust them because they have been there before. They embody our hopes, cast light on the way ahead, interpret arcane signs, warn us of lurking dangers, and point out unexpected delights along the way' (p.18).*

Levinson, Darrow, Klein, Levinson and McKee (1978) through their seminal work of how older (men) mentors had guided and supported men in their early working years claimed that the mentoring relationship is one of the most complex and developmentally important relationships that a man can have in early adulthood. Interestingly, Levinson's (1996) later study involving



women, written in collaboration with his wife and edited by his wife after he died, did not show (men) mentors having such an important impact on women mentees, suggesting that the barriers to empathy from male mentors prevented a deeper mentoring relationship from being established.

Over time Homer's epic story has provided for alternative interpretations that bear on the way that the wider history of mentoring is conceived. For instance, some writers contend that it was the Goddess Athena (whilst taking the form of Mentor) at the beginning and end of Homer's *Odyssey* who represented the active mentoring role as she was a self-sacrificing and inspirational character who did not take the directive, more controlling role of Mentor (Colley, 2005; Kumar & Blake-Beard, 2012; Daloz, 2012; Garvey et al., 2014). Other authors (Shea, 2002; Clutterbuck & Megginson, 2004) suggest that the practice of mentoring dates from much earlier than Greek mythology, suggesting that there is increasing evidence that the gradual dominance of modern man over other related species was a consequence of passing down knowledge and wisdom from generation to generation.

The term 'mentoring' itself comes from a Greek word meaning 'enduring.' The word mentor from Ancient Greek means 'of the mind' (Garvey, 2014, p. 361). However, it has been suggested that the word mentor did not enter into common usage until 1750 – three millennia after Homer's poem (Roberts, 2000). The term protégé can be taken from the French verb 'protéger', meaning 'to protect', although this term has been mostly superseded by the term mentee or learner today, except perhaps in the US, where a more dyadic, protective, sponsorship approach dominates mentoring practice; this is discussed later in the chapter.

According to some academics, from Homer to the new millennium not much has changed in terms of mentoring (Gulam & Zulfiqar, 1998.) However, others would argue that despite the tendency to portray mentoring as an activity which has endured since Homeric times, for much of human

history its forms have been submerged in other relationships (Gay & Stephenson, 1996; Monaghan & Lunt, 1992; Gulam & Zulfiqar, 1998; Colley, 2002.)

Several different types of relationship that involved mentoring activity have been based on important practices in certain cultures and historical eras, such as that of religious master-discipline, and the long established trade craftsman-apprenticeship professions (Gay & Stephenson, 1996 who later added therapist-client.). Monaghan and Lunt (1992) agreed that mentoring has its roots in the traditional apprenticeship system, where skilled craftsmen were not selected as mentors for their ability to train but rather for their expertise in the craft which hopefully they could pass on (Western, 2012). Through these relationships, mentoring became chiefly characterised as a highly emotional parental type of relationship between individuals, for instance Haydn helping to shape the growth and development of Beethoven, as did Freud with Jung. However, more recent studies of this romantic image (Colley, 2002; Levinson et al., 1978), show that there are contradictions in the ideal appearance of this type of mentoring and that if self-interest and self-reproduction were motivators, then the mentor intentions may be more competitive, restrictive and no longer developmental.

It could be argued that mentoring is derived from a tradition of class control, with the mentor role modelling behaviour and the mentees being expected to mirror the rich, powerful and successful (Gulam & Zulfiqar, 1998; Colley, 2003). The power distance dimension is clear, and there is no sense that the mentoring intervention will normally lead to the mentee rising to the same social level. For instance, in the late nineteenth century, the Charity Organisation Society (COS) encouraged middle-class women to befriend and mentor working-class families in order to act as role models and to share their moral values (Novak, 1988). But these volunteers also covertly reported progress back to the COS, on which cases were more deserving of monetary and educational support than others. This initially powerful movement fell into demise in the early twentieth century due in part to the vigorous resistance on the part of the working class people but also the rise of a state based profession of social workers.

It is important to understand the roots of mentoring as they have shaped what we understand as mentoring today and how this plays out within the workplace. This also provides an important foundation towards defining mentoring (discussed next).

### **3.2 Mentoring defined.**

The importance of mentoring relationships may have been documented for centuries (Cohen, 1995) but over time different definitions have been developed from different occupational perspectives (psychologists, educationalists), from evidence-based practice, testimonials and opinions of practitioners and consultants (Merriam, 1983; Clutterbuck, 2015) creating a ‘swampy lowlands’ (Garvey et al., 2014, p. 30). This definitional vagueness, according to Jacobi (1991) adds little to the field of research into mentoring and he contends that it results in a continued lack of clarity about the key aspects of mentoring relationships. Parsloe and Wray (2004) disagree and feel that the ‘semantic jungle’ (p. 8) represents the maturing of the field and creates a healthy debate towards further clarity.

Attempts at a universal definition of mentoring have produced a quagmire (Merriam, 1983; Hagerty, 1986; Daloz, 1986; D’Abate, Eddy & Tannenbaum, 2003; Clutterbuck, 2015). In the literature, definitions of mentoring vary with respect to dimensions such as purpose, hierarchy, intensity, duration and partnership (D’Abate et al., 2003; Gibson, 2004; Megginson & Clutterbuck, 2005) and according to national and cultural traditions (Bright, 2005; Liu et al., 2009) as well as differing disciplines and organisational contexts (Allen et al., 2008) and perceived overlap (by some) with other workplace relationships, for instance coaching and mentoring (D’Abate et al., 2003; Tyler, 2004).

Clutterbuck (2015) discusses the difficulties in pinning down the phenomenon as threefold: the strong influences from both organisational and national culture, the more recent development of

other forms of helping i.e. coaching, and that academics who have studied mentoring have been ‘pretty sloppy’ in defining what it is they are talking about. He goes on to give a warning to anyone attempting to make sense of mentoring through academic journals, by claiming that if the piece does not explicitly identify the type of relationship or the objectives of that relationship, then it is likely to be misguided and probably misleading.

Despite differences (and similarities) in the discussions, there is a high consistency in the literature in regard to the general concept of a traditional mentoring relationship, for instance, that mentoring is an intense and powerful one-on-one developmental relationship (Wanberg et al., 2003) which supports learning and development (Parsloe & Wray, 2004).

In the US a ‘sponsorship model’ of mentoring is typically adopted (Megginson et al., 2006), whereby mentoring is an interpersonal exchange (often career orientated) between a senior person and a more junior employee (often referred to as a protégé), where the mentor will guide, teach, share their experience, networks and wisdom (Zey, 1984; Whitely, Dougherty & Dreher, 1992; MacLennan, 1999; O’Brien, 2003). The mentor would play a significant role in promoting their protégé’s career advancement (Parsloe & Wray, 2004; Garvey et al., 2014). This sponsorship approach fits well with the craftsman-apprenticeship and a more paternalistic type approach which typified mentoring in its earlier roots. US based practitioners demonstrate a more hierarchical, more directive and paternal approach to mentoring:

*‘A mentorship is defined as an intense work relationship between senior (mentor) and junior (protégé) organizational members. The mentor has experience and power in the organization and personally advises, counsels, coaches, and promotes the career development of the protegee. Promotion of the protegee’s career may occur directly through actual promotion decisions made by the mentor, or indirectly through the mentor’s influence and power over other organizational members’ (Chao, 1997, p. 20).*

*‘Mentoring is (the) process whereby one senior individual is available to a junior; to form a non-specified developmental relationship; to seek information from; to regard as a role model; to guide the performer; to provide feedback and appraisal; to teach all the facts that will enable the individual to perform effectively in an organisation’*  
(MacLennan, 1999, p. 5).

These quotations indicate a high power-distance relationship within mentoring whereby the mentor informs, guides, teaches and directs the mentees in order to increase their performance within the organisation. They suggest a relationship where the mentor is doing much of the work (‘using their power’, ‘guiding’ and ‘teaching’) and a more mentor-centred and mentor-led, didactic type approach. However, more recent US research suggests that mentors specifically are adopting a more relational mentoring model (Ragins, 2012; Garvey et al., 2014.)

However, within the UK and Europe (and more recently Australia), a more learner-centred, facilitative developmental type approach has been evident for some time which tends to describe mentoring as support from one person to another, helping others to achieve various personal outcomes, specifically those related to career success (Gibson, 2004) mostly beyond their job and organisation. The mentor does not necessarily need to be senior or more experienced, although often this is the case. The mentor does not necessarily guide or teach either (as per the US definitions), but instead they tend to facilitate and empower others to take actions for themselves, and take a wider remit beyond just the career orientated goals. Garvey et al. (2014) sum up this developmental mentoring approach as aimed towards personal growth, mutual learning and mentee ownership of outcomes. Non-US based UK/European/Australian practitioners demonstrate a more developmental mentoring approach aimed towards personal growth, mutual learning and mentee ownership of outcomes:

*‘Off-line help by one person to another in making significant transitions in knowledge, work or thinking’* (Clutterbuck, 2015, p.6-7).

*'Mentoring is not about increasing the bottom line. It is about relationship, support, and increasing the human spirit' (Fenwick, 2003, p. 93).*

*Mentoring is a 'personal, helping relationship between a mentor and a mentee that includes professional development and growth and varying degrees of support' (Hansford et al., 2002, p. 102).*

Within these definitions there is no mention of the power relationship, hierarchy or experience needed (Shea, 1992; Parsloe & Wray, 2004; Megginson & Clutterbuck, 2005). In fact, the relationship, a sense of movement and growth, and encouragement of the whole person is emphasised more in these quotations. Less is mentioned about the process or actions involved of the mentors (and indeed the mentors doing all the work) but more is said about the relationship and the end result for the mentees.

Table 3.1 sets out more clearly the differences in the two approaches to mentoring. This table supports the quotes earlier showing the two differing perspectives in terms of the mentor's role, the benefits, purpose and emphasis within mentoring.

Kram's (1985) original research was based on the traditional or classical (sponsorship) model of mentoring in which she developed her two-function Career-Psychosocial model but later, in 1996, she introduced the idea that traditional mentoring relationships are quite different now. She suggested that more powerful mentoring relationships have evolved, where mentored individuals move away from the dependency stage to independence from each other, suggesting an increased emphasis on the developmental approach (Kram, 1996).

**Table 3.1** – Comparing the sponsorship and developmental mentoring approaches

<b>Sponsorship mentoring</b>	<b>Developmental mentoring</b>
The mentor is more influential and hierarchically senior	The mentor is more experienced in issues relevant to the mentee's learning needs (perhaps life in general)
The mentor gives, the protégé receives and the organization benefits	A process of mutual growth
The mentor actively champions and promotes the cause of the protégé	The mentor helps the mentee do things for him or herself
The mentor gives the protégé the benefit of his or her wisdom	The mentor helps the mentee develop his or her own wisdom
The mentors steers the protégé through the acquisition of experience and personal resources	The mentor helps the mentee towards personal insights from which he or she can steer his or her own development
The primary outcome or objective is career success	The primary outcome or objective is personal development, from which career success may flow
Good advice is central to the success of the relationship	Good questions are central to the success of the relationship
The social exchange emphasizes loyalty	The social exchange emphasizes learning

Source: Megginson et al. (2006) p. 17.

As much as national (US, UK and other European and Australian) opinions or frameworks create a difference in definitions and the purpose of mentoring, the organisational context can make a difference to the mentoring purpose, emphasis and therefore definitions too. For instance, within the UK education context Anderson (1987 as cited in Brooks & Sikes, 1997) defined mentoring in UK education as:

*'a nurturing process in which a more skilled or more experienced person, serving as a role model, teaches, sponsors, encourages, counsels, and befriends a less skilled or less experienced person for the purpose of promoting the latter's professional and/or personal development' (p. 28).*

This suggestion by Anderson demonstrates a power-distance relationship within UK educational mentoring, congruent with the US definitions and their sponsorship model. This is contrary to typical UK definitions of mentoring. However, more recently, there has been a move away from the traditional, instruction-centred, apprenticeship type model and the hierarchical one-way view of mentoring in UK education, whereby the mentor/teacher was seen as the skilled craftsman or expert giving knowledge, to a more balanced competence-based, learner-centred model and

reflective practitioner type approach within UK education today (Brooks & Sikes, 1997; Wang, 2000; Zachary, 2000). Zachary (2000) refers to this as a shift from the mentor-driven paradigm to a learning-centred one, suggesting movement for the mentor from ‘the sage on the stage’ to the ‘guide on the side’ (p. 3). She suggests in her later book that mentoring has become much more collaborative now (Zachary, 2012).

Despite these definitional variables, there is some consensus between the US, UK, European and Australian commentators, that essentially mentoring is a unique interpersonal relationship between two people (Eby, Rhodes & Allen, 2010; Janasz, Behson, Jonsen & Lankau, 2013). The key purpose of mentoring relationships is to support and challenge both parties towards their learning and development (Parsloe & Wray, 2004; Garvey, 2014). Parsloe and Wray suggest that when all the theory is taken away, mentoring is still a simple one-to-one meeting held regularly to support the mentee in their ambitions to make improvements either in their personal or working life.

It is important for this doctoral study to clarify what mentoring is and which type of mentoring is to be studied here as Clutterbuck (2015) advises about the need to explicitly identify the type of mentoring relationship that is being researched in order to ensure that the research is not misguided or misleading. With this in mind, the working definition for this research study will be that mentoring is a learning relationship and its purpose is to help individuals realise and work towards their personal and professional goals (Connor & Pokora, 2012).

### **3.3 Coaching and other forms of helping.**

Traditionally, mentoring is not the same as coaching, yet they seem to be the two most compared and contrasted learning interventions. They are often discussed together but they are quite different. Coaching is considered to be the ‘cousin’ of mentoring (Gray, 2014). This section will attempt to make the distinctions clear.



Here are some definitions of coaching:

*‘Coaching is the process whereby one individual helps another: to unlock their natural ability; to perform, learn and achieve; to increase awareness of factors which determine performance; to increase their sense of self responsibility and ownership of their performance; to self-coach; to identify and remove internal barriers to achievement’ (MacLennan, 1999, p .4).*

*‘Coaching refers to the task of continually developing employees so that they do their jobs well’ (Stone, 2007, p. 2).*

*‘Coaching is a facilitated, dialogic, reflective learning process’ (Cox, 2013, p. 1).*

Coaching does not have the developmental and sponsorship differences between UK/Europe/Australia and the US as mentoring does but does have differing definitions depending on the purpose or context that the intervention sits within. Hudson (1999) describes two kinds of coaching: (i) a ‘being’ coach (considering the inner aspects whilst coaching) and (ii) performance coaching (considering the outer aspects) and purports that good coaches operate in both domains with their clients. This helps to explain perhaps the differing split that is found within coaching definitions; the more traditional view that (on-the-job) coaching is about short term, on-the-job related support, and the more recent mixed view that coaching is beyond the job, looks at the whole person, and covers some of the domains of mentoring (for instance, career progression). Interestingly, Hudson goes on to suggest that mentoring is the model for coaching which just adds to the confusion.

Bachkirova, Cox and Clutterbuck (2014) discuss how the concept and application of coaching has ‘mushroomed’ into a huge collection of models and approaches, and make the point that many of them are non-directive in nature This suggests that earlier conceptualisations and practice of coaching were more directive in nature (for example the coach required expertise/knowledge of the task, the agenda was driven by coach or organisation and was primarily about meeting standards or

performance levels set by others). Whereas today, there is also a non-directive approach evident whereby the coach requires expertise/knowledge of the process, the agenda is driven by the coachee, and the coaching process is primarily about capability development and self-actualisation. They go on to state that it is a problem that coaching does not have a unique identity, but they suggest that coaching, like mentoring is a human development process that requires focus, structure, strategies and tools in order to create sustainable change (Bachkirova et al., 2014).

As much as they suggest that it is important to distinguish between coaching and other helping professions, their overall coaching definition could easily be a definition for mentoring too.

*‘Coaching and mentoring are contested and confused terms that embrace multiple and diverse practices...the terms ‘coaching’ and ‘mentoring’ cause much confusion – some people use them interchangeably and others clearly differentiate them’ (Western, 2012, p. 41).*

MacLennan (1999) declares that the two roles are worlds apart but overlapping, depending on which dimensions they are both compared. Garvey (2014) states that both mentoring and coaching share similar features in history; they can both be linked to learning and education and both are one-to-one processes. Coaching and mentoring can be considered as both interventions and skills and this adds to the confusion within the definitions. They are both different learning interventions but they do share similar approaches and skills (Western, 2012.) The Department for Business Innovation and Skills (BIS), in their 2012 Mentoring Policy Action plan, help to clarify this further by stating that while a mentor may help a person make decisions about the journey they wish to travel, a coach can help to give them the skills to get there. This suggests mentoring and coaching provides a different focus but for a common purpose.

In short, on-the-job coaching traditionally is linked to improving an individual’s performance and raising competence levels (Clutterbuck & Schneider, 1998), typically within the workplace.

Whereas mentoring traditionally has always been more holistic; it’s about an individual’s professional and personal development towards managing their careers, within and beyond the job

(Stone, 2007). Fenwick (2003) claims that coaching is generally linked to learning a specific skill whilst mentors serve as ‘life guides’ (p. 117). Other writers have argued that coaching is different from mentoring, as indicated by the differing characteristics listed in Table 3.2 which have been adapted from Taylor and Furnham (2005), Starcevich (2009) and Passmore (2015) respectively.

This table shows how the role of coach and mentor differs as do the purpose and emphasis. This table also suggests a much wider scope, more flexibility and more time within mentoring.

However, not indicated in Table 3.2 is the fact that the skills, practices and processes used by coaches and mentors are similar. The coaching definitions mentioned earlier suggest the skills of providing feedback, supporting and encouraging, all of which are skills for both a coach and a mentor. MacLennan (1999) describes coaching as a pulling out activity, where a coach is someone to learn with and mentoring as a putting in activity, where a mentor is someone available to learn from, which is a view also supported by Parsloe and Wray (2004).

**Table 3.2 – Contrasting characteristics of coaching and mentoring**

<b>Characteristics</b>	<b>Coaching</b>	<b>Mentoring</b>
Focus	More performance-focussed	More career-focussed
Activity	Raising competence levels (within the job)	Managing professional and personal development (beyond the job)
Level of sector knowledge	More generalist	More sector knowledge
Length of contract	Shorter term	Longer term
Role	Facilitator with set agenda	Facilitator with no agenda
Relationship	Comes with the job	Self-selecting
External/internal to job/dept	Internal	External
Arena	Task related	Life/future related

Adapted from: Taylor & Furnham (2005); Starcevich (2009); Passmore (2015).

Traditionally coaching has been perceived as being a more didactic process (similar to the US sponsorship mentoring type approach) whereby a coach shares his/her experience with the coaches/clients and so suggests a one-way relationship, more focused on a particular task, skill or job related activity, and not looking beyond the job into future career prospects. These older, more traditional views of both coaching and mentoring are based on the early introduction of coaching and mentoring in businesses but over time, the differences between them are becoming blurred and

the similarities more apparent. For instance, more recently the types of coaching in the workplace have expanded to include such terms as *life coaching* (predominantly focussed on life improvements), *business coaching* (with a focus on business results), *executive coaching* (with a focus on the top leadership teams), *career coaching* (similar to mentoring in relation to support for career goals) to name a few. This has allowed coaching to spread over into some of the personal development areas, traditionally reserved for mentoring, and has added to the confusion around the definitions and the suggestion that coaching and mentoring are not too dissimilar (Western, 2012).

In summary, both coaching and mentoring are learning relationships which support individuals to realise their potential, take control of their own development and achieve results (Connor & Pokora, 2012). The Coaching and Mentoring Network (CMN) agrees and states that they are both processes that enable individuals to achieve their full potential, that the common thread that unites both types of intervention is that they offer a vehicle for analysis, reflection, learning and action that ultimately enables the mentee or coachee to achieve success in one or more areas of their life or work (CMN, 2009).

Other authors (Western, 2012), agree that there is a clear overlap between coaching and mentoring but suggest that:

*'there is a theme of goodwill, generosity and mutuality that runs through mentoring that is lacking in 'professional coaching' and that gives mentoring a different feel and a different capacity to engage....the additional benefit (is) that it empowers, motivates and can improve both parties, the mentor and the mentee' (p. 53).*

Garvey (2014) suggests that the emotional bond is one of the key differentiating factors for mentoring and quotes the work of Hunt and Weintraub (2011) stating that coaching does not necessarily require the emotional bond that mentoring does. With this in mind, he also suggests that friendship is more strongly linked to mentoring, but less so for coaching (Garvey et al., 2014.) He also makes clear that what makes mentoring relationships distinctive is the purpose of the conversation and the context in which it occurs (Garvey, 2014).

Other helping professions often get discussed in the same literature as coaching and mentoring, due to their one-to-one developmental nature and these include counselling and therapy. Again, they are dyadic relationships with an emphasis on learning and change which share similar human qualities of trust, openness, honest, integrity (Garvey, 2014) and similar skills (rapport building, listening, demonstrating empathy, questioning, action planning). The main purpose of all these helping interventions is independence and autonomy. However, counselling as an intervention is very different from mentoring, but the skills of counselling can be used in mentoring too. For further clarity, please see the comparison table below (Table 3.3).

**Table 3.3 - Mentoring, Counselling and Coaching comparison grid**

<b>Mentoring</b>	<b>Counselling</b>	<b>Coaching</b>
What?	Why?	How?
The future	The past	The here and now
Developing & committing to learning goals	Overcoming psychological barriers	Overcoming skills barriers
Opening horizons	Building self understanding	Raising competence

Adapted from: The Coaching & Mentoring Network (2016) and Clutterbuck & Schneider (1998).

This table shows the different focus and purpose of all three interventions, demonstrating that mentoring is more future focussed and committed to longer term goals.

Garvey et al. (2014) conclude that there is no one definition for coaching and mentoring and no one best way. Earlier, Stone (2007) stated that it does not really matter what we call one process or the other, but that what is important is to be clear about the meaning and the purpose of the relationship, within the particular workplace setting.

Therefore, it is important to make clear that this doctoral research will not study coaching or other forms of developmental intervention, only formal mentoring. The three collaborating case study organisations used for this study based in the UK, all adopt a clear UK developmental mentoring model and they all make a clear distinction between formal and informal mentoring and coaching programmes within their organisations.

### **3.4 Formal mentoring programmes.**

Formal mentoring is a strategy, a formalised scheme (whether for the talented or the socially disadvantaged), ranging from relationships that provide advice and sponsorship to those that are highly intense, career focussed and developmental (Gibson, 2004). When a mentoring programme is sponsored by an organisation, it is considered to be formal (Western, 2012.) Siegel, Schultz & Landy (2011) suggest that formal mentoring programmes involve the matching of mentor to mentee by the employer organisation and that they are structured over a finite period of time.

Formal mentoring relationships range from those that provide advice and sponsorship to those that are highly intense, career focussed, and developmental (Kram, 1985; Gibson, 2004). D'Abate et al. (2003) claim that formal mentoring can be defined by how it is constructed with, as key dimensions, its dyadic nature, the downward direction, the internal location, the purpose of long-term development, and the formality of the supporting structure and matching process. These dimensions help to distinguish formal mentoring not only from informal or unstructured mentoring but also from other developmental interactions such as coaching and action learning. However, the downward direction is negotiable as not all formal mentoring programmes are hierarchical, with some using peer mentoring, lateral direction and even upward direction mentoring (Clinks, 2015).

Since Wanberg's (2003) study mentioned in the introduction chapter, formal mentoring has been specifically targeted by researchers and a better understanding of formal mentoring has developed, specifically in terms of mentoring programme design (Allen et al., 2006), within women-only groups (Devos, 2007), in relation to career outcomes (Kammeyer-Mueller & Judge, 2008), and within different cultures and contexts (Liu et al., 2009). Furthermore, research has been carried out in relation to formal learning and dual-career couples (Harvey, Napier, Moeller & Williams, 2010), the role of perceived organisational support (Baranik et al., 2010), attachment theory (Germain, 2011), transformational leadership and well-being (Chun et al., 2012) and personality (Wang et al., 2014; Menges, 2015).

There is evidence to show that formal mentoring works. There is research that demonstrates that those participating in formal mentoring programmes experience higher levels of job satisfaction and organisational commitment than those that do not, and this in turn has an impact on their job performance (Chao, 1997; Hansford et al., 2002; Egan & Song, 2008; Hoigaard & Mathisen, 2009; Lester, Hannah, Harms, Vogelgesang & Avolio, 2011) and potentially their career success (Lentz & Allen, 2009; Singh et al., 2009; Siegel et al., 2011). This demonstrates a convincing argument to those practitioners who use mentoring as a development tool and/or effective support mechanism to help individuals adjust more readily to the changing times (Cranwell-Ward et al., 2004).

There is still some debate about how formal and informal mentor programmes differ (Hezlett & Gibson, 2005) and about the effectiveness of formal and informal mentoring programmes. Some research has shown that formal mentoring programmes are more effective than informal mentoring (Allen et al., 2008), although many academics would say that the opposite is true (Ragins & Cotton, 1999; Hezlett & Gibson, 2007; Bozionelos, Bozionelos, Polychroniou & Kostopoulos, 2014; Clutterbuck, 2015).

According to Clutterbuck (2015) much of the research particularly from the US, including Ragins and Cotton (1999), suggests that informal relationships are more effective, particularly for women. This could be because mentors are motivated volunteers to the process and not persuaded by senior managers to get involved, and they tend to last longer; formal relationships typically last less than a year (Bozionelos et al., 2014) suggesting that formal mentoring programmes accrue more benefits as they do not have to conform to the organisational set rules and regulations which may constrain the mentoring relationships or indeed for women restrict their ability to apply.

Some scholars have expressed doubt about whether the formal relationship can become as close as those in informal relationships (Hezlett & Gibson, 2007). This view suggests that informal mentoring relationships tend to have the opportunity to build stronger friendship bonds, empathy and better trust over a longer period of time. For instance, if trust is seen as a key mentoring characteristic and also a key factor in establishing social ties (discussed later), this may be an issue

in the early phases of a formal scheme. Hunt and Weintraub (2011) and Garvey (2014) mention that the emotional bond and friendship that can be developed within mentoring is a key factor that distinguishes it from coaching but there is a suggestion that this may be harder or take longer to establish within formal mentoring relationships.

Several studies have found that mentees in formal relationships report less mentee outcomes (Hezlett & Gibson, 2005) and less vocational support than those mentees in informal mentoring programmes (see for instance Ragins & Cotton, 1999; Allen et al., 2005; Siegel et al., 2011). Some scholars have highlighted the risk of mismatching in formal relationships (Siegel et al., 2011; Simon & Eby, 2003) and some suggest benefits are not routinely recognised within formal mentoring programmes (Wanberg et al., 2003; Hezlett & Gibson, 2005).

In short, formal relationships have been criticised for:

*‘the limited number of participants that can be accommodated, the lack of commitment to the relationship, the negative experiences resulting from unmet expectations, and the erosion of the manager-subordinate relationships that can arise as a consequence of the subordinate’s special relationship with the assigned mentor’*  
(McCauley & Young, 1993, p. 220).

However, Tepper (1995), Ragins, Cotton & Miller (2000) and Wanberg et al. (2003) disagree and suggest that formal mentoring relationships have the potential to create the same career-related outcomes as informal mentoring relationships. Clutterbuck (2015) cites that one of the key reasons why mentoring relationships fail is that neither party is sure about the aims of the relationship, yet formal mentoring programmes would ensure that the relationship has a clear purpose, meaning and direction. Formal mentoring schemes help to provide this clarity; a purpose for the organisation and ultimately for the mentor and the mentee, and in addition, the organisation would normally ensure that there is a practical framework of support: initial training for mentors, supporting materials and continual review of the process. The formal process also helps to discourage ‘toxic’ mentors



(Clutterbuck, 2012) as they may not be invited into the more formal, structured process. Parsloe and Wray (2004) citing the work of Ragins (1999) suggested that mentoring programmes with guidelines are viewed as more effective and that a high quality formal mentoring relationship is much better than a low quality informal mentoring relationship. Hezlett and Gibson (2005) suggest that formal mentoring relationships do have the potential to be as beneficial as informal mentoring relationships but maybe either choice does not always deliver.

Although Parsloe & Wray (2004) do suggest that from ten years of practical experience within mentoring programmes, one of their strongest messages is that whilst formal clarification of responsibilities, roles and relationships is essential, so too is flexibility within the process. Despite some differences of opinion, Cranwell-Ward et al. (2004) and later Clutterbuck (2015) suggest a highly effective mentoring programme may involve the best aspects of each: a clear purpose and direction but with relationships that are able to operate as informally as possible.

Having agreed that mentoring needs to have some formality and some flexibility involved, Garvey (2014) declared that mentoring programmes do need some 'light touch' design and that some core factors need to be considered such as: volunteerism and choice for both mentor and mentee; a clear recruitment strategy; training for mentors and mentees; a clear and transparent matching policy; and ongoing support for mentors and mentees if they require it. And according to Alred and Garvey (2010) establishing reviewable ground rules, having ongoing reviews with both parties, working with the mentee's agenda, and accepting mentoring as legitimate work are also key necessary considerations.

Cranwell-Ward et al. (2004) suggest that mentoring 'lives or dies by its reputation' (p.72) and so appointing mentoring champions to support the process and also to help market the programme throughout the business is key. Together with Clutterbuck, Cranwell-Ward et al. advocate the need for mentors and mentees to be properly trained and for line managers to be briefed, with Clutterbuck stating that both training and educating line managers pushes the success rate over 90%. Clutterbuck (2015) suggests that without any training at all, only one in three pairings will

deliver significant results. They state that just training mentors raises the success rate to 65%.

Cranwell-Ward et al. (2004) state that their research showed that mentoring relationships are three times more likely to be successful, if both parties are trained.

Both Clutterbuck and Cranwell-Ward et al. demonstrate how crucial training and communication are for mentors, mentees and line managers; communicating with and involving key stakeholders in the mentoring programme will help to bring about longer lasting mentoring success. Their findings are supported by Eby et al. (2000) whose research showed that mentoring relationships were much less successful if attitudes, values and beliefs of the mentor were perceived to differ from the mentees. Training could help to bridge this gap and enhance awareness and understanding of the purpose and expectations of such mentoring relationships.

After training, the process of matching the mentors and mentees is potentially the most problematic but is key to the success of the relationship. (Cranwell-Ward et al., 2004). Clutterbuck (2015) advises that mentees are given some element of choice though not unguided choice, and that too great a hierarchy or experience gap should be avoided. He also suggests avoiding entanglements with line managers, ensuring that all mentors are committed to the process and that after a three session review, mentees are allowed a 'no fault divorce clause' (p. 65).

Race (2006) agrees with these key authors that training and matching are important to the success of any mentoring programme but adds that specifically, for formal mentoring to be successful there should be: (i) direct involvement of senior management (who may be able to act as role models in the scheme); (ii) clear management structures for directing the scheme; (iii) regular review and evaluation; (iv) monitoring in ways that allow the tangible benefits to be identified and valued; and (v) briefing to ensure the scheme is well understood within the department or organisation so that employees (whether mentors or mentees) feel a sense of ownership of the successes linked to it.

Villani (2002) also agrees that training, communication and matching are key but also suggests in her '20 Step Guide Towards a Successful Mentoring Programme' that a pilot programme is trialled initially, that handbooks are created for the mentors and the mentees, and that there are scheduled

and periodic group reviews with mentors and mentees. The suggestion is that any successful outcomes are celebrated and shared beyond just the mentors and mentee group. Young and Perrewé (2000) suggest that if individuals perceive others are receiving positive outcomes, they will be more willing to engage in mentoring themselves.

It has been important to understand in this formal mentoring discussion that there is a distinction between formal and informal mentoring programmes and what contributes to an effective formal programme. This is significant for this doctoral study as part of the purpose of this research is to better understand what works and what suggestions to make to HRD practitioners for future formal mentoring programmes.

### **3.5 Important mentoring models.**

This section will discuss some of the key models in relation to mentoring phases, mentoring functions and support and challenge dimensions that relate to formal mentoring. They demonstrate how the emphasis and impact of mentoring and outcomes may change over time.

Duration of the mentoring relationship makes a difference to outcomes (Kram, 1988; Chao, 1997; Clutterbuck & Lane 2004; Zachary, 2012) as does age and each stage of life (Erikson, 1963; Levinson et al., 1978; Kram, 1985, 1988). Erikson (1963) with his 8 stage lifecycle of identity and psychosocial development helps suggest that mentoring is most important in the early adult stage (searching for companionship), middle adulthood (work, career and family are the most important) and late adulthood (searching for meaning/desire to help others). Levinson (1978) too discusses life stages and suggests that mentors are pivotal figures in the early career stage for individuals. Kram (1985) concluded from seminal mentoring study that all individuals will have different needs and different concerns at the early career, middle career and late career stages, which will affect what they bring to and seek from relationships at work.

According to Kram (1988), formal (and informal) mentoring relationships go through a number of distinct phases: initiation, cultivation, separation and redefinition (see Table 3.4).

**Table. 3.4** - Phases of the mentoring relationship

<b>Phase</b>	<b>Definition</b>	<b>Turning points</b>
Initiation	A period of six months to a year when the relationship begins and becomes important to both managers.	Fantasies become concrete expectations. Expectations are met: senior manager provides coaching, challenging work, visibility; junior manager provides technical assistance, respect and desire to be coached. There are opportunities for interaction around work tasks.
Cultivation	A period to two to five years when the maximum range of career and psychosocial functions are provided.	Both individuals continue to benefit from the relationship. Opportunities for meaningful and more frequent interaction increase. Emotional bond deepens and intimacy increases.
Separation	A period of six months to two years after a significant change in the structural role relationship and/or in the emotional experience of the relationship.	Junior manager* no longer wants guidance but rather the opportunity to work more autonomously. Senior manager* faces midlife crisis and is less available to provide mentoring functions. Job rotation or promotion limits opportunities for continued interaction; career and psychosocial functions can no longer be provided. Blocked opportunity creates resentment and hostility that disrupt positive interaction.
Redefinition	An indefinite period after the separation phase when the relationship ends or takes on significantly different characteristics, making it a more peerlike friendship.	Stresses of separation diminish and new relationships are formed. The mentor relationship is no longer needed in its previous form. Resentment and anger diminish; gratitude and appreciation increase. Peer status is achieved.

\* Note: Mentees are referred to as junior managers and mentors as senior managers.

Source: Kram (1988) p. 49.

Based on research in informal mentoring relationships (Pollock, 1995), the suggestion is that fewer mentoring functions are provided in the early/initiation phase, more in the cultivation/separation phase and fewer in the redefinition phase and this is agreed by formal mentoring authors too (Wanberg et al., 2003; Hezlett & Gibson, 2005.) In short, the suggestion is that mentoring functions change as the mentoring relationship develops, and increases between the early and middle phases. Table 3.4 suggests key turning points that affect the way in which mentors and mentees interact

over time. Also, it is interesting to note the very long timescales and the effect of the separation phase on the mentor, shown here too.

Kram's mentoring phases matter as they help us to understand more about how the mentoring relationship evolves over time.

*'At a theoretical level, the (Kram) phases help define different roles for the mentor and protégé. These roles serve different functions which define the quality of the mentorship and likely outcomes. Given the long-term benefits of mentoring, links among mentoring phases, functions, and outcomes provide practical guidance for mentors and proteges to make the most of this relationship.'* (Chao, 1997, p. 27-28).

Zachary (2012) describes four similar phases within mentoring: preparing, negotiating, enabling growth and coming to closure. She suggests that her phases are less time bound than Kram's but represent the behaviours needed to move through each of the developmental phases. The initiation/preparing phase typically involves the mentor and mentee getting to know each other and discussing the expectations of the relationship. The cultivation/negotiating phase is where mentors support mentees to clarify, commit and work towards their goals. This is typically where the emotional bond within the relationship begins to deepen (as suggested by Kram's model too). The separation/enabling phase is where the mentor will challenge the mentee towards growing more independent of them. The final redefinition/coming to closure stage is involved in giving/receiving feedback to look back, move forward and celebrate the learning (Zachary, 2012), bringing the formal relationship to an end. This is where a new informal relationship could be formed between the two parties and the previous mentoring relationship can become more of a peerlike friendship (Kram, 1988; Chao, 1997). Chao (1997) noted that there had been no published studies showing the validity of these phases and so carried out a study of 178 engineering graduates within a US context and agreed that these phases and timescales held up.

As can be seen by Table 3.4, Kram (1988) suggested and Chao (1997) agreed, that these phases can span over 2-5 years. However, this could be associated with the sponsorship mentoring relationship ideology whereby mentees have their careers supported for many years in the workplace, under the

guidance of their senior manager mentors. For UK/Europe studies, Kram's four phases are still referred to but over a shorter period of time. Zachary (2012) states that mentoring relationships today are much more short term and that once the mentee initial goals have been achieved and/or the timescales set by the organisation have been met, the relationship comes to a close. Bozionelos et al. (2014) discuss the average length of a formal mentoring programme is 12 months and Clutterbuck (2015) suggests that formal mentor relationships in the workplace that go beyond 12 months are no more effective after that period. Clutterbuck and Lane (2004) split out the separation/enabling phases making five phases (building rapport, setting direction, progression, winding up and moving on) and discussed the intensity of learning at each phase of the mentoring relationship. They suggest that the early and end phases have low learning intensity and the middle phases (progression and winding up phases) have the highest learning intensity.

For the purposes of this research study, the four phases of Kram have been used, within the 12 month timescales of Bozionelos et al. (2014) in order to categorise, analyse and discuss the findings. These have been chosen as they are the original mentoring phases that other authors have built their models against and clearly demonstrate the beginning, middle and end phases of the mentoring relationship. In short, the phases are important as they indicate the key turning points in the mentoring relationship, whereby learning outcomes are expected. These then become the key milestones in order to gather the information from the mentees and mentors, so as to give an indication of the volume and intensity of learning (Clutterbuck and Lane, 2004) for both parties' learning over time. These four phases are used later as the framework to discuss the findings for the case study organisations.

In addition, mentoring functions are widely accepted as an important component of mentoring relationships too (Hezlett & Gibson, 2005). Kram (1985,1988) suggested that developmental mentoring relationships which contribute to individual growth and career advancement provide two types of assistance/functions and these are career functions and psychosocial functions, illustrated in Table 3.5. She states is what differentiates developmental relationships from other workplace relationships.

**Table. 3.5** - Mentoring functions

<b>Career Functions</b>	<b>Psychosocial Functions</b>
Sponsorship Exposure and Visibility Coaching Protection Challenging Assignments	Role Modelling Acceptance and Confirmation Counselling Friendship

Source: Kram (1988) p. 23.

This table shows the assistance given by mentors, in relation to career functions; those aspects of the relationship that directly assist and enhance career advancement and psychosocial functions; those aspects of the relationship that enhance an individual's sense of identity, self worth and competence which directly assists their effectiveness in their professional role. She suggested that mentoring relationships that cover both functions tend to have a stronger personal bond and intimacy and as such are more unique than other relationships in the workplace (Kram, 1988).

In short, receiving both types of mentoring function and assistance is associated with more positive objective outcomes (for example, promotions) and subjective outcomes (for example, job satisfaction) for mentees. Kram (1985, 1988) also suggested that different mentoring functions were associated with the different phases over time. She suggested that career functions emerged first in the initiation phase, with psychosocial functions emerging later in the cultivation phase. She suggested that both functions were less prevalent in the final phases of the mentoring relationship.

As with Kram's (1988) four phases model, this two-function model was developed in the US through her PhD research with a sponsorship model of mentoring in mind and is still much cited in mentoring literature and research today. Although widely used, this model has been criticised by some authors: Arthur 1985; Rogow 1989; Hezlett and Gibson, 2005. Scandura and Ragins (1993) suggested that role modelling should be more explicitly highlighted and indeed be a distinct third function in this model. Wanberg et al. (2003) and Hezlett & Gibson (2005) suggested that this two function model is a necessary model to clarify what mentees can expect and what mentors can do but felt that it does not represent all that mentoring provides.

Reflecting on Wanberg et al.'s (2003) concerns mentioned before, she was not clear from the outset about mentoring with her respondents, (although she argued that this was not an objective of hers) and she did not distinguish between formal and informal mentoring either. Plus, the numbers in her two studies were quite 'modest' (Arthur, 1985), and based on two different organisations only, which did not allow for triangulation of results and/or generalisations to be made. Kram admits that her sample size was small, but she argued that this allowed her to hold more in-depth, intensive interviews to gain a better understanding of the relationships dynamics. In her reflections at the end of her research, she suggests that further research needs to be carried out to determine the frequency of these relationships, what extent different relationships are available to individuals at different phases in different contexts and she suggests that cross-organisational studies are needed to see how the context affects the phases of developmental relationships.

Chao (1997) tested Kram's (1985, 1988) assumptions that different mentoring functions were associated with the different phases over time and showed that those in the initiation phase showed lower levels of psychosocial and career-related support, as the relationship is just getting established. However, there were no significant differences in relation to mentoring functions in the cultivation phase (as suggested by Kram) but Chao suggests this could potentially be a recognition and reporting delay by respondents and not an indication that there is less support in the earlier phases.

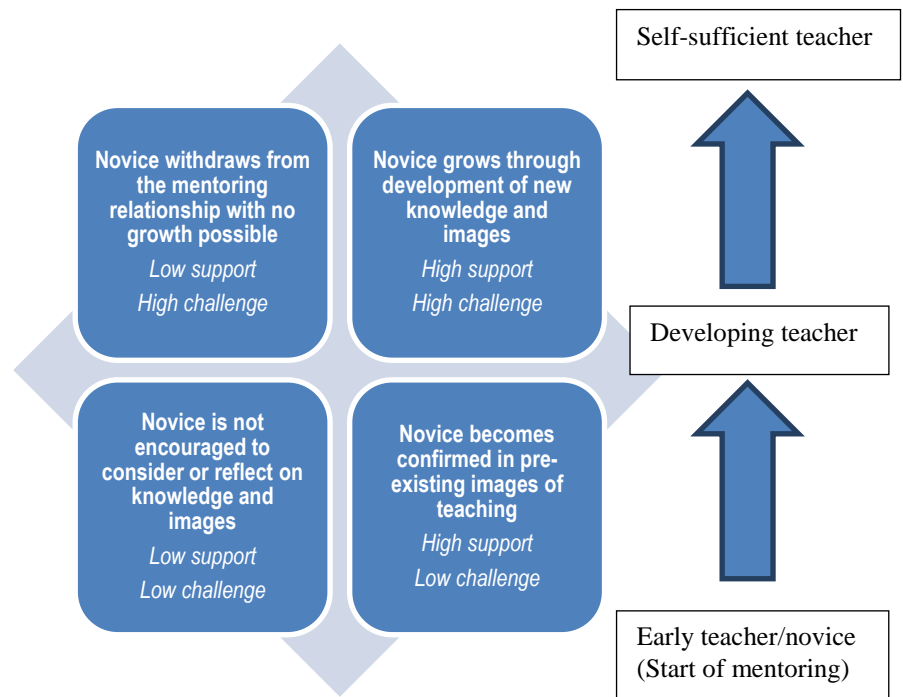
In an attempt to confirm changes in mentoring functions and phases over time, Chun et al., (2012) carried out a longitudinal study within 9 Korean organisations with 111 dyads in formal mentoring programmes over a seven month period, asking for self-report perceptions at three points in time (at the start, six months into the programme and at the end) in relation to the wellbeing, organisational commitment and leadership qualities of both parties. They concluded that 'career support' and 'role modelling' were the most popular mentoring functions but that mentors and mentees may value and expect different functions. However, they conceded there were certain limitations to their study; their sample could have been larger and there was scope for certain control groups to be used.



Despite criticisms, it is clear that Kram's work is still seen as an important starting point into understanding the phases of mentoring, but there are lessons that she has learnt and that others can learn from her research approach too. Arthur (1985) stated that Kram's work has clearly been a valuable contribution to mentoring and is a clear starting point for anyone serious about studying developmental relationships.

The final key models relevant to mentoring to be discussed are those which have support and challenge dimensions. Elliott and Calderhead (1994) discussed the notion of support and challenge in mentoring, within an educational context aimed at newly qualified teachers (which they termed novices). According to Jones (2008) their two-dimensional model (Fig 3.1) shows the importance of recognising the need to challenge pre-existing ideas but this must be done supportively, to ensure personal learning and growth occurs. This matrix suggests that for an effective mentoring relationship to take place, there needs to be high support and high challenge. It would make sense to suggest that newly qualified teachers may start in the bottom right quadrant (high support and low challenge) initially whilst they observe their role model mentors and become confirmed in pre-existing images of teaching, at least in the early stages of their personal development. Cohen (1995) agrees and suggests that mentees will be more ready to benefit from challenge in the later phases when the relationship has become more meaningful and trust has developed. This suggests potentially a move between the two high support quadrants on the matrix, as suggested by the arrows on the right.

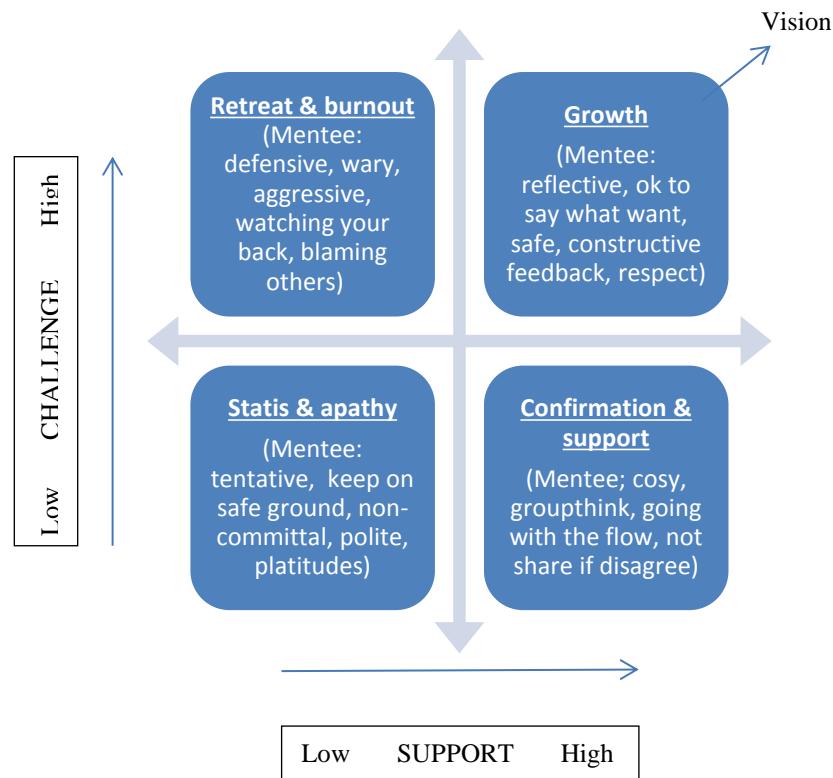
**Fig. 3.1 - The 2 dimensional model of mentoring relationships**



Adapted from: Elliott & Calderhead (1994) p. 172.

Interestingly, Bouquillon, Sosik & Lee (2005) with their research across high-tech industry and the education sector confirmed that the trust between mentee and mentor showed significant increases between the core and redefinition phases. Later, Rajuan, Beijgaard and Verloop (2007) agreed stating that experienced teachers/mentors should be encouraged to provide new teachers/mentees with challenging learning opportunities within a safe, supportive environment. Connor and Pokora (2012) build on this matrix in relation to coaching and mentoring generally, as can be seen in Fig. 3.2. Connor and Pokora (2012) discuss the importance of getting the conditions right for learning and call this the learning climate.

**Fig. 3.2** The support and challenge model



Adapted from: Connor & Pokora (2012) & Daloz (2012) p. 37.

As this model shows, the learning climate involves getting a healthy balance between support and challenge. They suggest that too much support and too little challenge will lead to a comfortable, cosy climate but will stifle learning (low right hand quadrant). Mentees may feel that they cannot disagree with their mentor as they may not want to create conflict, so may go along with certain actions to avoid confronting the mentor (top left quadrant/retreat, for instance the notion of group think). Conversely, too much challenge and too little support will lead to mentees/coaches becoming wary and defensive and again limited or no learning will occur. Mentees may wish to play their cards close to their chest, as a true honest relationship will not develop. Too little support and challenge creates a very safe relationship but one that does not encourage the mentee out of their comfort zone or beyond a superficial relationship. The key to learning is through both high support and high challenge where feedback is constructive, differences are encouraged and it is safe to disagree (top right quadrant).

According to Daloz (2012) mentors do three things: support, challenge and provide vision. Support involves mentors providing a safe place and showing care, understanding, validating and empathising with present experiences, and this helps to build trust.

*‘Trust is the well from which we draw the courage to let go of what we no longer need and to receive what we do. Without a reasonably well-established sense of basic trust, it is difficult to move ahead. Courage and trust are sister and brother’ (Daloz, 2012, p. 206).*

Having the courage to challenge is about questioning assumptions, setting difficult tasks, encouraging critical reflection and about giving the mentee power to make their own decisions, close gaps and move themselves forward, towards their vision and goals. Mentors also help provide vision by role modelling what the mentee may wish to become or where the mentee may wish to be (Daloz, 2012). He states that mentees as they develop realise they do not want to become like their mentors but want to become more fully themselves, through their mentors.

In short, both Fig 3.1 and Fig 3.2 show that if support and challenge is enhanced mentees will ‘become more fully themselves’ but if support and challenge are low, things will be likely to stay the same (stasis). Ideally, what is needed is a mixture of high support and high challenge to ensure development (growth) and achievement of vision (Gopee, 2011). Movement through this matrix will depend on a variety of factors, for instance: the mentee/mentor relationship and the trust that has been built up, the needs of the mentee, the approach, the ability of the mentor and timing.

Overall, it has been important to discuss the ‘phases’, ‘functions’, and ‘dimensions’ of the key mentoring models as this doctoral study is interested in learning changes over time for both parties. Therefore, it is necessary to understand the various phases that mentees and mentors progress through during mentoring in order to understand better how aspects of the relationship shift over time.

### 3.6 Negative issues and relational problems in mentoring.

Although this research study intends to explore what mentees and mentors perceived they had gained from the mentoring relationship, suggesting outcomes and therefore a positive mentoring experience, there is an emerging area of research on what might lead to the failure of the mentoring relationship: either a negative relationship and/or dysfunctional mentoring (Hezlett & Gibson, 2007; Kumar & Blake-Beard, 2012).

Eby, McManus, Simon & Russell (2000) discuss the 15 types of negative mentoring experiences and later Eby, Butts, Lockwood & Simon (2004) categorized these into 5 meta themes including: mismatch between mentee and mentor, unfriendly/distancing and manipulative behaviour from the mentor and lack of mentor expertise. Labianca and Brass (2006) and Kumar and Blake-Beard (2012) discuss the career related outcomes of negative experiences for the mentee including withdrawal from the organisation, both psychologically and physically.

*‘When relationships allow one to address important needs and concerns, they are enhancing and valued. When relationships interfere with one’s capacity to address these needs and concerns, they are dissatisfying and potentially destructive’ (Kram, 1988, p. 13).*

Research has also shown that some negative experiences are more likely to have a greater impact in formal mentoring relationships than informal ones, more often in the separation phase of the relationship (Eby & Allen, 2002) particularly in areas of mentor distancing behaviours and lack of mentor expertise. Also, Eby and McManus (2004) in their study of 90, mostly male, mentors suggested that mentees who were egocentric led to a dysfunctional relationship, those with interpersonal difficulties led to an ineffective relationship and those unwilling to learn led to a *marginally effective mentoring experience*. However, both negative and dysfunctional mentoring relationships have received little research attention since 2006, excepting Kumar and Blake-Beard (2012).

It is important to mention negative or dysfunctional mentoring experiences, as although they are not the focus of this doctoral study, moderating factors that help and hinder the mentoring relationship are, so some negative aspects will be discussed. Typically these aspects may not have created a negative mentoring experience but may have had bearing on the effectiveness of the mentoring relationships. Attention has been drawn to negative and dysfunctional mentoring relationships in this literature review to demonstrate the researcher has awareness that mentoring relationships are not always positive and that there is recognition that positive learning outcomes are not always maximised or achieved.

### **3.7 Summary.**

This chapter has discussed the history of mentoring, definitions, formal mentoring and some key mentoring models. The next chapter (chapter 4) will discuss learning; the key psychological theories of learning, adult learning theory and learning outcomes.

## Chapter 4 – Learning

*'Learning is the fundamental process and primary purpose of mentoring. Learning on the part of both mentor and mentee grounds the work of mentoring. It is the reason we do it, the process we engage in during a mentoring relationship, and the outcome that both mentor and mentee seek' (Zachary, 2012, p. 1).*

In order to better understand the connection between mentoring and learning, this chapter will discuss learning theory; definitions, models, outcomes and other learning and developmental processes in the workplace.

### 4.1 An overview of learning.

Learning is complex. Bratton et al. (2008) suggest that we know 'precious little' about learning. Hergenbahn and Olson (2001) suggest that the inaccessibility of learning is one reason why there are so many theories, models and approaches to learning. Definitions have been contested due to the multi-disciplinary contributions from psychology, sociology, anthropology, philosophy, the social sciences and the humanities. Each perspective emphasises different aspects of learning and is useful depending on the purpose and what matters about learning (Wenger, 1999). Wenger divides his assumptions as to what matters about learning into four premises: learning as belonging, learning as becoming, learning as doing and learning as experience.

Due to these differing premises and the various schools of thought and/or fields that describe learning, there are many different definitions of learning. Here are a few definitions to set the scene:

*'Learning is a change in human disposition or capability, which can be retained, and which is not simply ascribable to the process of growth' (Gagne, 1965, p. 5).*

*'Learning... is a general term that is used to describe changes in behaviour potentially resulting from experience' (Hergenbahn & Olson, 2001, p. 7).*

*'Learning; a process by which a person constructs new knowledge, skills and capabilities'* (Harrison, 2009, p.87).

*'Learning is both a process and a continuous state of mind, which transcends all traditional organizational boundaries and structures, and has become a central feature of the way we live'* (Parsloe & Wray, 2004, p. 40).

Despite a myriad of definitions and perspectives, learning is generally defined as either a product in terms of growth and fulfilment or a process by which behaviour is changed and shaped (Merriam, Caffarella & Baumgartner, 2007; Knowles et al., 2015). The first two definitions listed above show learning as a product with emphasis on the outcome of learning and the last two definitions describe the process whereby the focus is on what happens when the learning takes place. More recently, learning has been described too as a function - for example, motivation, retention and transfer – which make the changes from learning possible. (Knowles et al., 2015).

Authors who have written about mentoring and learning suggest that personal learning is the acquisition of knowledge, skills or competencies that contribute to an individual's personal development (Kram, 1996). Higgins and Kram (2001) later defined personal learning to be the result of increased personal clarity of their professional identity (values, attitudes and so on) and emphasis on their individual development needs. Lankau and Scandura (2002) suggested that there are two types of personal learning: relational job learning and personal skills development (interpersonal skills). In summary, broadly there is agreement that learning involves change for an individual leading on to some form of personal development (Rogers, 1983; Hale, 2000; Lankau & Scandura, 2002; Hezlett & Gibson, 2007) and mentoring relationships can serve as a valuable tool to enable such personal learning in organisations (Lankau & Scandura, 2007).

It is important for this doctoral study to have an understanding of what learning is and how it is defined as learning outcomes are a core focus of this research and so a basic understanding of



learning theory is fundamental to understanding the connections between learning and mentoring derived from the findings later.

## **4.2 Psychological theories of learning**

Many authors (Wenger, 1999; Hergenhahn & Olson, 2001; Reynolds, Caley & Mason, 2002; Taylor & Furnham 2005; Merriam et al., 2007; Knowles et al., 2015) discuss the different psychological theories in relation to how people learn: behaviourist, cognitive, constructivist and social learning. Merriam et al. (2007) and Knowles et al. (2015) suggest that these psychological theories took the lead in the first half of the 1900s but from the 1960s onwards adult educators began to add to the debate. They suggest that all four are still operative and that there is no single theory of adult learning but that we are heading towards a multifaceted understanding of adult learning, reflecting the complexity of the phenomenon. (Merriam et al., 2007; Knowles et al., 2015.)

Behaviourist theories, through the well-known scientific studies of Watson (1913, 1920), Pavlov (1927), Guthrie (1935), Hull (1943) and Skinner (1987) focussed on conditioning, reward, reinforcement and measurement. Generally, there are considered to be two types of conditioning: classical (as epitomised by the stimulus-response case study of Pavlov's dog) and instrumental (where the individual must act in a particular way before it is reinforced). This 'school of thought' suggests that we cannot know what goes on within the learner (Siemens, 2005) but that we do know that learning is the acquisition of new behaviour, that this new behaviour must be objectively observed and that learning is manifested by a change of behaviour. The four key principles for behaviourist theories are: repetition/trial and error (practice makes perfect), clear objectives driven by need, learning by doing is best, and reinforcement (that is, feedback is important), as is reward and punishment, known as operant conditioning (Taylor & Furnham, 2005).

Cognitive theories, initially developed through the Gestalt movement (Kohler, 1929; Gagne, 1965; Piaget, 1966; Bloom, 1956), focus on how the mind processes, builds on and transmits information.

The Gestaltists believed that the individual adds order to their experience; that things are not viewed or learnt in isolation but gathered together and internalised to make something meaningful. Piaget (1966) understood that growth emerged from the interaction between the individual and the environment. Hergenhahn & Olson (2001) summarise this by saying ‘the whole is different than the sum of its parts.’ (p. 249). This was counter to the behaviourists' objective, more scientific view of psychology, as it relied on a more holistic, subjective, continuous approach to learning. Behaviourists viewed the brain as a passive receiver which stored information but Gestaltists considered the brain more active, acting on incoming information in order to organise it and make it meaningful, that is to solve (or not) a problem. The six key principles for cognitive theories are: new information needs to be linked to prior knowledge and experience, relationships are made between key ideas, organised materials are easier to learn and remember, learners need feedback as soon as possible, different learning styles require different things and learners are drawn to different aspects, so learning activities need to be designed to engage as many senses as possible (Taylor & Furnham, 2005).

Skinner (1987) attacked cognitive psychology in the form of a variety of accusations, including suggesting that it speculated about internal processes which they were unable to observe, suggesting it is a premature neurology. Skinner also suggested that it was old wine in new bottles. However, as with behaviourism, cognitive psychology has endured (Hergenhahn & Olson, 2001).

Constructivists recognised that real-life learning is messy and complex (Siemens, 2005). Constructivist theorists (Dewey, 1910; Rogers, 1969; Mezirow, 1991) put the learner in the centre of the learning experience. They focus on engagement with the environment; learners are responsible for their own learning and construct their knowledge depending on how they look at things, that is taking into account their own experience, mental models and beliefs (Taylor & Furnham, 2005). Learning within this school of thought is also highly dependent on context: the basic philosophy is that knowledge must be presented in a meaningful context to facilitate effective learning.

The humanists' theory in relation to learning (developed from the 1960s) is sometimes discussed in a category of its own or within the constructivist school of thought. Humanists posit that people are responsible for their own learning, and so can evaluate their own learning and determine their own destiny. They do not accept that the environment or the subconscious determines behaviour (as do behaviourists and cognitivists, and some purist constructivists) but that people choose for themselves (Taylor & Furnham, 2005). Rogers (1969) proposes that the key elements of humanistic learning include: involving the whole person in the learning, the learning comes from within, learning makes a difference, the learner self-evaluates their learning and the element of meaning is key. Transformational learning is also about making meaning (Mezirow, 1991), that is how we interpret/make meaning of our life experiences in order to act on these insights. This is interesting as it is both a psychological perspective on learning but also considered to be part of adult learning theory, as is Kolb, both of which are mentioned later on.

Social (constructivist) learning theory focusses on the relationships between people, in particular selecting the best models to observe and emulate (Hergenhahn & Olson, 2001). This role model approach to learning was in opposition to the behaviourists who felt that learning can only be the result of direct experience and not from indirect, observable behaviour. Bandura (1976) felt that observational learning occurred all the time, that anything that can be learned by direct experience can be learned by observation and that learning is not dependent on reinforcement. He also made the distinction between imitation and observational learning, suggesting that observational learning may not always involve imitation; you can learn by what you see, but you may not necessarily copy it. This is linked to the concept of self-regulation whereby individuals will regulate their behaviour depending on the perceived consequences and also that some behaviours are more likely to be imitated than others, such as more positive, competent, powerful role models.

Bandura is a key theorist in relation to observational learning. Interestingly, Hergenhahn and Olson (2001) suggest that Bandura's theory of observational learning is considered under the cognitive school of thought, as there are some reinforcement and habitual aspects to this theory. They posit that most of our learning involves interactions with others in a social setting but they suggest that to

consider Bandura under social learning theory is misleading. Bandura (1986) himself suggests that he prefers the label 'social cognitive theory' as he feels his theory is much broader than social learning theory because his theory is a combination of the social aspects of human thought and action and knowledge acquisition through cognitive processing. Taylor and Furnham (2005) agreed that there were different forms of social learning theory: cognitive social theories, activity theories and social practice/communities of practice theory (Wenger, 1999). Taylor and Furnham (2005) suggest that social learning theories do not contradict the behavioural, cognitive or constructivist theories but they argue that learning is more effective when applied in a social setting. Merriam et al. (2007) suggested that adult learning arises from the context of our lives. Garvey et al. (2014) helpfully concludes that learning is a social activity whereby individuals learn through, by and with others. 10 years earlier, Garvey (2004) felt there was a real danger that mentoring was being adopted without due consideration for the cultural context or social setting.

Wenger (1999) in relation to his work on communities of practice suggested that the context and social structure were important to our learning too:

*'learning takes place through our engagement in actions and interactions (situated experience), but it embeds this engagement in culture and history (social structure). Through these local actions and interactions, learning reproduces and transforms the social structure in which it takes place' (p. 13).*

Another theory of learning that has been proposed in recent years is connectivism (Siemens, 2005; Deubel, 2006). Siemens states that as the key psychological theories of learning were not initiated in recent times, they do not take into account how technology has transformed learning in the 21<sup>st</sup> century. Harrison (2009) suggests that within a few generations we have moved from where learning has been a planned event dominated by training, through to learning as a social process and now to an era where work and knowledge can become one integrated activity.

Siemens (2005) suggests that technology has replaced our need to know-how and know-what and has given us the opportunity to know-where (that is, technology has given us the opportunity to

know where to find what we need to know, without having to know it in the first place). He suggests that the afore-mentioned psychological approaches to learning concentrate on learning inside a person only and not how learning can occur outside the person, through non-human appliances. He suggests that as external knowledge continues to evolve, having the skills to access what is needed is more important than the knowledge the learner currently holds. In some ways, this is not a new phenomenon but perhaps an extension of the social learning theory in so far as it is about making connections with others in order to enhance learning, whether that is through face to face dialogue or technological means.

Despite contentions by different theorists and suggestions of additional new or sub-categories, it is still today generally assumed that there are four schools of thought, from the psychological field. Helpfully, Reynolds et al. (2002) cluster the key learning theories into: learning as behaviour (behaviourism), learning as understanding (cognitivism), learning as knowledge construction (constructivism) and learning as social practice (social learning theory).

For this doctoral study it is helpful to have an understanding of the key schools of thought in relation to learning, as they have a direct connection to how learning is achieved through mentoring, that is through stimulus-response (behaviourism), through feedback (cognitivism), application back into the workplace (constructivism) and role modelling (social learning theory). As Snoeren et al. (2016) suggest:

*‘Theories of learning and knowledge construction could increase our understanding of relational processes and mentoring outcomes and may offer frameworks to support the description of high quality mentoring processes’ (p.18).*

### **4.3 Adult learning theory.**

Many of the psychological perspectives of learning had been tested through experiments with different animals (cats, rats, dogs, monkeys to name a few) and babies (famously the little Albert

experiment in 1920) but educationalists in the 1960s started to move away from this and make the distinction between how children learn (pedagogy) and how adults learn (andragogy.) Bratton et al. (2008) define this adult education movement as a lifelong learning philosophy permeating throughout society.

Bratton et al. (2008) go on to describe two major schools of thought in relation to adult learning as either traditionalist (an emphasis on the cognitive aspects of learning) or psychological (an emphasis on emotions in learning). They also suggest six critical trends in adult education theory and practice: moving beyond self to selves, expanding voices (putting our voice with others), being comfortable with complexity and chaos, understanding the power relationships within learning (who really benefits?), that implementation and knowledge sharing is power, and democratising knowledge making.

Picking up on one of the critical trends, being comfortable with complexity and chaos, the suggestion is that adults thrive in an atmosphere of uncertainty and lack of clear direction (Bratton et al., 2008). Also, the critical trend that relates to implementation and knowledge sharing being power, suggests that the old notion of 'knowledge is power' is flawed and that 'implementation is power' or that 'knowledge sharing is power' (Bratton et al., 2008).

Malcolm Knowles, considered to be the father and pioneer of Andragogy (adult learning theory) in the 1980s, (Knowles et al., 2015) defined learning as the process of gaining expertise and knowledge and expertise. This is an interesting definition as it suggests that only knowledge and expertise can be gained through the learning process; suggesting an emphasis on cognitive and skills and less so on other affective-related factors such as behavioural/attitudinal related learning. This is interesting as this definition endures over all eight editions of their books. Notwithstanding their key theory relates to the process of learning, their early declared definition in all their books quotes the product/outcome of learning too.

Knowles et al. (2015) created a core set of assumptions about adult learning and a series of recommendations for planning, delivering and evaluating adult learning, suggesting that adults should be educated through collaborative methods, in other words negotiated between teacher and learners. Knowles et al. (2015) created six key principles for Andragogy;

- Adults need to know why learning is important or useful to them
- Adults respond better when they feel they have some control over events/decisions
- Adults have relevant experiences which need to be used in learning
- Adults need to be ready to learn
- Adult learning has to be related to a real-life context
- Adults are motivated to learn when drivers are in place and de-motivators removed

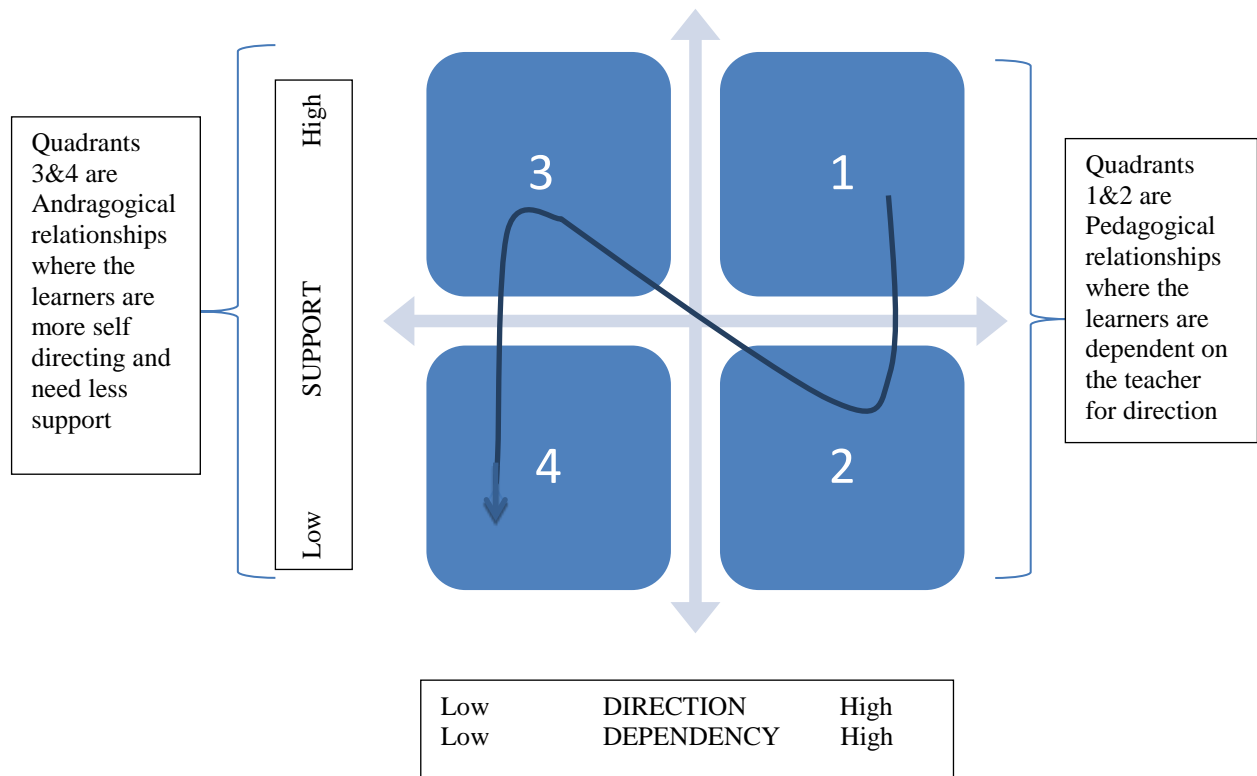
Rogers (2007) states that these key facets of andragogy/adult learning underpin all mentoring practice. For instance, adults need to have control over their learning process, they need a chance for self-diagnosis of their needs, they must take responsibility for their own learning, and they prefer to be facilitated and self-directed.

Recognising that most learning experiences are situational, Pratt (1988) created a model about readiness to learn. It has two core dimensions that vary for each learning situation and within different contexts: direction and support. His model is situated within an educational context and suggests an adult's need for direction is determined by their competence and need for dependence. Pratt states that the need for encouragement from others will vary depending on their commitment to the learning process and their confidence about their own abilities. Learners may well switch quadrants depending on the subject, situation or context; one may have competence and confidence within a particular area of learning, due to prior experience, but not in others (Knowles et al., 2015).

Both of Pratt's (1988) need for direction and need for support quadrant models have been brought together to create a model of pedagogical and andragogical relationships, showing support and

direction together (see Fig. 4.1). This is similar to the support and challenge model depicted earlier on in this chapter 4 (Fig. 4.1 and Fig. 4.2), with challenge replaced by direction and dependency and a suggested movement between the quadrants added.

**Fig. 4.1** Pratt's (1988) model of pedagogical and andragogical relationships



Adapted from: Pratt (1988) p. 167.

Fig. 4.1 suggests that as competence and confidence grow, individuals will move towards the quadrant of low need for direction and low need for support. This would mean that the learner can provide their own support and direction and so be a true independent learner (that is, taking a true andragogic approach.) This links with the adult learning principle of responding better when they have control over events; as they become more challenged, they will be take more personal control and responsibility of events and their learning intensity will increase. Factors that affect the process and ultimately the product of learning, according to Pratt (1988) include situational variables, for instance time, cost, organisational needs; learner variables, for instance self-efficacy, learning style (Kolb, 1984), motivation (Vroom, 1995), locus of control, self-confidence, prior experience and



readiness to learn; and teacher variables, for instance preferred ways of working, experience, training and confidence.

There are two criticisms to be made of Pratt's model: (i) although it mentions individuals can be in different quadrants for different reasons, it does not explicitly suggest a transition through from perhaps quadrant 1, to 2, to 3 and ultimately 4, except perhaps to follow the arrow but this has no accompanying narrative; and (ii) that Pratt's model does have a striking resemblance to the Hersey Blanchard Model of Situational Leadership (1982) which suggests that leader's behaviour has two fundamental components: being directive and being supportive. Their model also explicitly suggests movement from the right-hand bottom quadrant up and through to the left-hand bottom one, where the leader moves from a directive style to a coaching one, to a supporting one, and ultimately to a delegating one, as does the arrow in Pratt's model. Pratt developed his model within an educational context whereas Hersey-Blanchard's model is focussed on developing leadership skills, so although the models have a different focus or context, the resemblance is striking.

Based on the adult learning principle that experiences need to be used in learning (Knowles et al., 2015), experiential learning is clearly part of adult learning theory and practice too. Inspired by Piaget (1966) from the Cognitive/Gestalt school of thought and by Rogers (1969) from the Humanist school among others (Knowles et al., 2015), Kolb (1984) suggested that learning is a process whereby knowledge is created through experience. Boud, Cohen & Walker (1997) later agreed that experience was central to all learning and that it would be meaningless to talk about learning in isolation from experience.

Kolb (1984) through his experiential learning cycle proposed that experience is a key central element in the learning process (Dochy, Gijbels, Segers & Van den Bossche, 2011). The term 'experiential' helps to differentiate his theory from cognitive and behavioural theorists who do not necessarily allow room for the subjective experience and leans towards a more constructivist

approach, whereby learners construct their knowledge depending on how they look at things, whilst taking into account their own experience.

Kolb's experiential learning theory is underpinned by six factors:

- Learning is best understood as a process, not in terms of the outcomes
- All learning is re-learning
- Learning requires the resolution of conflicts
- Learning is a holistic process of adaption to the world
- Learning results from transactions between the learner and their environment
- Learning is the process of creating knowledge

His experiential learning cycle, suggests that there are four stages and they are typically addressed in this order (but not always): concrete experience (involvement in the here and now), reflective observation (of the learner's experiences from a variety of perspectives), abstract conceptualisation (distilling and integrating observations and ideas) and active experimentation (using new insights to make decisions and to take action.) In short, Kolb suggested that people learn through cycles. They learn through experience (either planned or unplanned), they then reflect on it (consciously or unconsciously), they then draw conclusions which then leads them to plan to act differently next time. This in turn leads to an experience and the cycle beginning again (Parsloe & Wray, 2004).

Kolb's experiential learning cycle has been further developed by others too. For example, Bergsteiner and Avery (2014) developed a twin-cycle experiential learning model which, they suggest, is a more integrative model by taking into account more learning activities, learning modes and learning stages within both cycles. Despite some early and later authors, such as Boud, Keogh & Walker (1985) and Bergsteiner and Avery (2014), criticising Kolb's learning cycle for paying insufficient attention to reflection, context and other variables, Kolb's original learning cycle model is still extremely popular with HRD practitioners. This is because it relates directly to the systematic learning cycle (Harrison, 2009), it is practical and easy to follow and the model can be

used to design adult learning experiences against its four components. The model helps those designing learning interventions to take into account adult learners' prior experiences and to appeal to varying learning styles in order to increase the likelihood of learning transfer (Knowles et al., 2015).

Mezirow's (1991) transformational theory is both a psychological perspective but also a key adult learning theory. As previously mentioned, Knowles et al., (2015) state that adults have relevant experiences which need to be used in learning and they need to know why learning is important or useful to them. These notions underpin transformational learning theory. Mezirow defines transformational learning as the process of understanding one's experience through critical self-reflection. In short, transformational learning is all about making sense of our experiences, through critical reflection and discourse with others, in order to move towards developmental change (Dochy et al., 2011). It consists of three stages: critical reflection (whereby previous perceptions are investigated and new perspectives are developed), discourse (new perspectives are checked with experienced others) and action/development (whereby new perspectives are acted on, internalised and integrated with other perspectives).

Reflection is a form of response to the learner's experience (Boud, Keogh & Walker, 1985). After the learner has the experience, the processing phase is called reflection. Action and experience, do not necessarily lead to learning (Jarvis, 1995), reflection is needed to recapture the experiences and evaluate them. It is this working with the experiences that is important in learning (Boud et al., 1985).

Daloz (2012) states that transformative learning will not occur without the processing phase of critical reflection. Transformative learning starts when an adult experiences something that is outside of their usual frame of reference and so cannot use their previous experiences to make sense of what is happening. In order to address these 'disorienting dilemmas' (Dochy et al., 2011, p. 43), adults need to *critically* reflect and explore their long held beliefs and assumptions, to develop alternative perspectives and create new understandings to act upon. Discourse is

mentioned as one of the key stages, which allows the adult learner to test, with others, whether the new meanings they have created for themselves are true, before actions are taken. It is important that those they share this with are informed, objective, rational, non-judgemental adults; not unlike the key qualities of a mentor.

According to Dochy et al. (2011) Mezirow's theory was acontextual because his original study had looked at white middle-class women returning to study but there was no discussion of the impact of their specific contextual characteristics, socio-cultural aspects, and power. Although criticised for not considering the role of context Mezirow's transformational theory is still a popular workplace theory and practice as it links directly into the notion of Learning Organisations (Senge, 2006) whereby the sustainability and success of the organisation is enhanced by its ability to learn. Adult learning principles are the foundation for a learning organisation (Klinge, 2015). Klinge (2015) suggests that Senge's (2006) five principles of learning organisations; systems thinking, personal mastery, shared vision, team learning, and mental models are key elements of mentoring relationships. Interestingly, it is suggested that a true Learning Organisation would have coaching and mentoring interventions within it (Buck 2004; Klinge, 2015).

Knowles et al. (2015) also stated that adults need to be ready to learn and are motivated when drivers are in place and any de-motivators removed. Motivation is another key factor that can affect the learning process and indeed the speed or way in which an individual moves around the learning cycle (Kolb, 1984). There are many theories of motivation which link in with the adult learning principles around motivation. For instance, Vroom's (1995) expectancy theory suggests that a learner's motivation is made up of three components: valence (the value that a person places on the outcome), instrumentality (the probability that these outcomes will occur) and expectancy (the belief that a certain amount of effort will get that reward.) This suggests that the adult learner will be motivated when as a result of their efforts, their expectations of receiving something valuable to them are met. In short, that their effort equals the reward (Knowles et al., 2015). This links with the notion of social exchange theory (Emerson, 1976) within a mentoring relationship. It proposes that individuals develop, maintain and exit relationships depending on the perceived benefits or

otherwise to themselves (Young & Perrewe, 2000; Baranik et al., 2010). Relationships can be seen as a positive or negative experience or both, but the theory suggests that we tend to maintain those relationships that we perceive are beneficial to us.

It is important to understand the underlying principles of adult learning, experiential learning and transformative learning as these are the key theories that underpin mentoring practice. Bachkirova et al. (2014) state that these are the key theoretical traditions that underpin coaching practice too. This section has also recognised that there are some similar ways in which adults learn and therefore there are patterns that will be similar. This is significant to this doctoral study because although the process of learning is not explored directly (but the learning outcomes are), the theory suggests for adults that their motivation and readiness to learn is affected by similar aspects, making the starting baseline similar for mentees and mentors.

The discussions so far have been in relation to the psychologist and educationalist perspectives of learning theory generally but as this doctoral study is specifically related to learning within mentoring, learning outcomes from mentoring are the next key area for consideration.

#### **4.4 Learning outcomes in mentoring.**

As can be seen earlier in this chapter, learning can be defined as either a product or a process (Merriam et al., 2007). A product is where emphasis is on the outcome of that learning, such as a change in behaviour (Gagne, 1965) and a process whereby the focus is on how that learning occurs (Kolb, 1984). As the first two research questions are concerned with learning outcomes, this section will look at learning as a product (outcomes) only.

Bloom (1956), linked to the behaviourism paradigm mentioned earlier, defined three educational objectives for learning: cognitive (thinking/head), affective (feeling/heart) and psychomotor (emphasis on skills). He felt that if learning was approached from more than one domain, the learner would retain this better. His work has since been developed and popularised by others

(Gagne, 1972; Kraiger, Ford & Salas, 1993; Podolny & Baron, 1997). Gagne (1972) created five domains for learning: motor skills, verbal information, intellectual skills, cognitive strategies (related to challenging thinking) and attitudes. He made the point that attitudes are a distinctive domain as they are not learnt through practice but through involvement with other people.

Based on Kraiger et al.'s (1993) classification of three learning outcomes, cognitive, skill-based and affective-related learning, and work by Podolny and Baron (1997) in social networks, Wanberg et al. (2003) suggest that the four potential areas for learning or change to take place within formal mentoring are: cognitive learning, skill-based learning, affective-related learning and social networks. For clarity, cognitive learning is concerned with the acquisition of knowledge about the organisation, the politics and the culture of the workplace and skill-based learning is concerned with developing new skills, for instance interpersonal skills (working with others, managing relationships, communication skills). Affective-related learning is concerned with deeper more personal learning, often involving some mention of motivational change (for instance, following personal goals, taking the initiative, not being too hard on oneself) and social networks are concerned with expanding connections inside and outside the workplace.

Research conducted by Hezlett (2005) into a large public sector agency within the USA, where students/interns were asked early in their careers what and how they learned from their mentors, as part of a formal mentoring programme, showed that mentees felt they had gained cognitive, skill-based and affective learning from their mentors. An earlier quantitative US study by Lankau and Scandura (2002) showed that additional benefits beyond learning may be fostered by mentoring relationships, for instance, mentees understanding their role/responsibilities better and job satisfaction, which may in turn influence extrinsic outcomes. This research suggests that learning may not be the only outcome from mentoring but can also act as a 'catalyst' for other benefits (Hezlett, 2005, p. 507).

Hezlett (2005) also seemed clear from her research that mentees learned from both positive and negative experiences with their mentors. An earlier quantitative study by Eby et al. (2004) based at

a large US University also showed a positive correlation between mentoring relationships and learning. This study showed that mentees perceived they were learning more when their mentors provided more support but less when mentors had less positive attributes, such as distancing behaviour and lack of mentoring expertise. Other research suggests that lack of learning in the mentoring relationship will inevitably contribute to the collapse of the relationship (Hezlett, 2005).

Another aspect is trust. Lack of trust in the relationship will limit the mentoring experience and outcomes, as it would in coaching. Cox (2012) states that trust is vital at the start of a reciprocal peer coaching relationship but also appears to build substantially during the relationship. She states that learning increases as the level of trust increases. When trust is high, mentees and mentors can be more open and honest with each other and this is where the greater learning takes place (Zachary, 2012).

A recent study by St-Jean and Audet (2012), using the three learning domains of Kraiger et al. (1993), revealed that mentoring helped novice entrepreneur mentees to develop their cognitive and affective learning but not any skill-based learning. Cognitive learning accounted for 62% of the mentees' total learning outcomes. Affective-related learning included an increased self-efficacy, validation of their self-image and resilience. The researchers concluded that only two of the three learning domains can be achieved in a mentoring context: cognitive and affective learning. Their data was gathered from mentees in two group discussions (a total of 11 mentees) and a questionnaire (25 mentees) but this was at one point in time and the mentors' perspectives were not included in this study.

Lankau and Scandura (2002) also investigated learning in a healthcare setting and reported that those with mentors reported greater job related learning than those without. Allen and Eby (2003) looked at learning from the mentor's perspective and demonstrated that they gained new knowledge/insights and personal development, as a result of being a mentor. Their study also showed that mentors reported that they learnt more if they felt they were similar to their mentees. As already discussed, mentoring (as with coaching) is a dyadic relationship; two people are

involved and these two people have an influence on the learning outcomes that occur within the relationship, for both parties. Few studies have reported the perceptions of both mentors and mentees together (Jones, 2012) but Chun et al. (2012) investigated the relationship between mentoring functions and transformational leadership for mentors and improved well being and commitment for both mentor and mentees. They found that mentoring did have a positive impact on both mentors' and mentees' behaviour in all these areas, not necessarily through all mentoring functions.

Garvey (2014) discusses the key benefits of mentoring for all three parties: the mentee, the mentor and the organisation. For the mentee, they can expect to learn new knowledge and skills, improved performance and productivity, improved career opportunity and advancement and greater confidence and well-being. For the mentor he cites learning new knowledge and skills, improved performance, greater satisfaction, greater loyalty and self-awareness and leadership development. For the organisation: improved morale, motivation and relationships (with less conflict), improved staff retention and communication and overall improved learning. Hezlett and Gibson (2005) in earlier reflections suggested that the three organisational outcomes of mentoring are developing human resources, improving communication and managing organisational culture. All of these can support both mentees and mentors in times of change. Yet, as discussed in the introduction chapter (chapter 1) there is limited research showing how mentoring can help both mentees and mentors cope and adapt in times of organisational change.

Wanberg et al. (2003) also proposed that more proactive mentees were more likely to influence the amount of mentoring provided and this would therefore have an increased impact on mentee change and positive career outcomes. Clutterbuck (2007) suggested that the questions of what mentee and mentor behaviours in a developmental mentoring relationship are associated with positive outcomes and how expectations by mentor and mentee influence behaviours, relationship quality, and outcomes for each of them, remain unanswered. Although a study by Godshalk and Sosik (2003) found that mentors and mentees with high levels of learning goal orientation reported higher levels of mentoring, suggesting that certain characteristics of a dyad, such as sharing



attitudes towards certain ways of working together, will influence the success of the mentoring relationship. Building on their work, Egan (2005) agrees that one individual characteristic that can combine both the learning and performance outcomes expected within a mentoring relationship is learning goal orientation (LGO) and his study of 143 mentoring dyads showed that the more similar the mentee and mentor were, the greater the support and hence the outcomes.

Hezlett and Gibson (2005) agreed that goal-setting and meeting frequency were associated with higher levels of mentee satisfaction. Also Thibodeaux and Lowe (1996) suggested that mentors having similar learning styles will lead to more effective mentoring relationships too, although Clutterbuck (1998) suggested that maximum learning occurs where there is minimum similarity of experience and minimum similarity of personality. Cox (2005) agreed that the quality of the match in mentoring could affect the benefits for both parties.

In 2000, Philip and Hendry evaluated an informal mentoring programme for young people, at the start and then 6 months on in the process. This was a qualitative study, including both sides of the dyad. The results demonstrated that both can gain from the relationship. Another longitudinal study, carried out by Phinney et al. (2011) in relation to a Latino College first year student formal mentoring programme, reviewed a variety of mentee factors, including academic motivation, belonging and stress levels at the beginning and end phases of their mentoring relationships. Their study revealed that mentoring made a modest difference in the psychosocial factors that underlie academic performance, over time.

As can be seen, learning outcomes have been researched before but the majority of research has been aimed at mentees and there is inconclusive evidence to show how the learning changes over time for both parties. Also, mostly quantitative approaches have been taken to determine the learning outcomes but this research will be different. This doctoral research, through the central research question and sub-questions, will investigate the learning outcomes for both parties using a qualitative approach and will acknowledge moderating factors too which may help and hinder the learning from within these mentoring relationships.

#### **4.5 Summary.**

This chapter has discussed learning: the key psychological theories of learning, adult learning theory and learning outcomes through mentoring. The next chapter (chapter 5) will discuss the importance of organisational context and culture, and will introduce the NHS and Police context and culture as this is where the case study organisations used for this doctoral study were based.

## **Chapter 5 - Context**

Zachary (2012) reminds us that all mentoring relationships are embedded in a wider context which affects how we connect, work and learn together. Therefore, this chapter will discuss the importance of organisational context and culture, and will introduce the NHS and Police context and culture in more detail, as this is where the case study organisations were based.

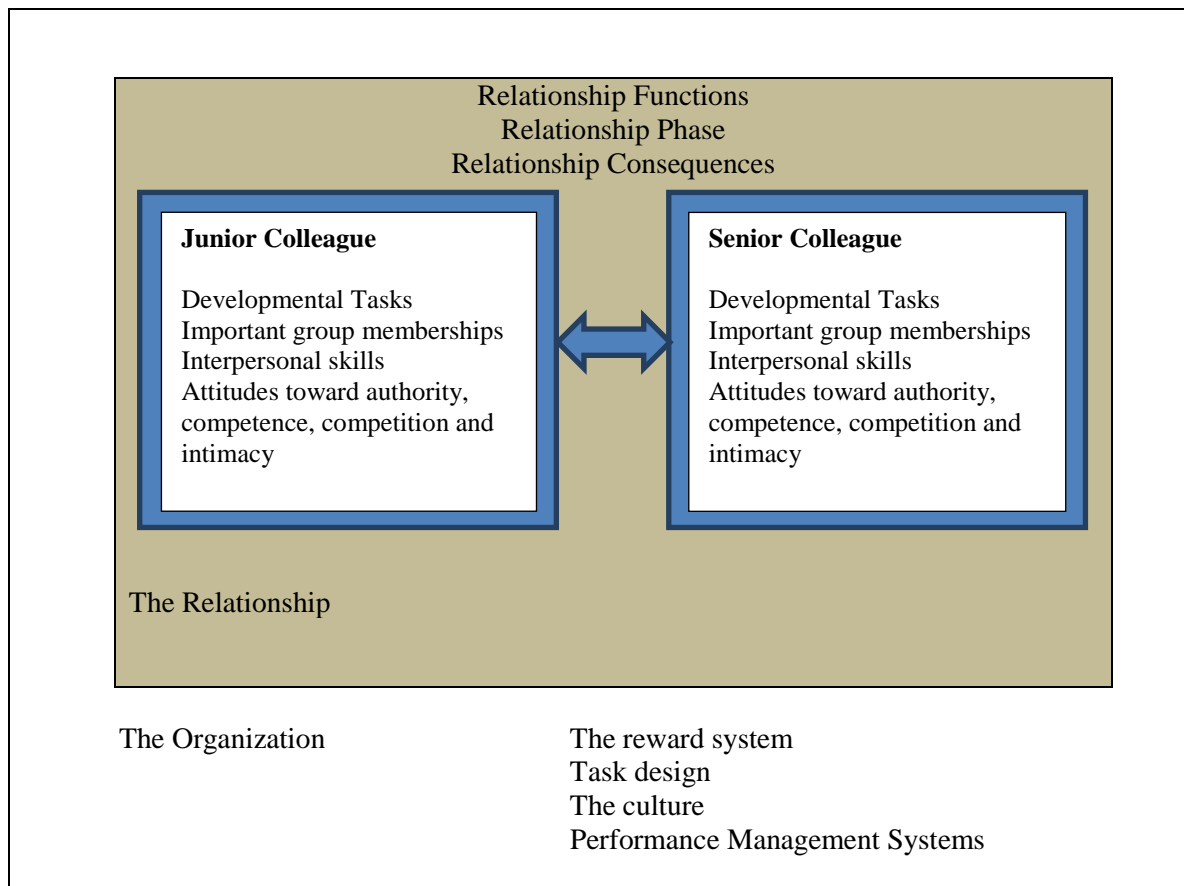
### **5.1 Organisational context and culture.**

Daloz (2012) suggests that it is important to look at the nature of the environment in which the learning and development occurs. Kram (1988) suggested an open systems perspective to show how developmental relationships (the smaller system) are embedded in the organisational context (the larger system) which in turn influences which developmental functions are provided and supported. This open systems perspective can be seen in Fig. 5.1.

Through this model, Kram suggested that the interaction of these two forces (the smaller and larger system) created the relationship dynamics what will make a difference (positive or negative) to an individual's development. She felt it was essential that we understood how the larger system in respect of the reward system, task design, the culture and the performance management systems influenced the smaller system and how the relationship factors sit within them.

The suggestion from this model is that if we are aware of what is helping and hindering from within the smaller and larger system, moves could be made to capitalise on those aspects that encourage supportive relationships and to change those that hinder them. Rogow (1989), who reviewed Kram's book, emphasised the importance of the organisational context too but also stated that context had a direct impact on the likelihood of mentoring existing in the first place.

**Fig. 5.1** - An open systems perspective on mentoring



Source: Kram (1988) p. 19.

Lee et al. (2004) discuss how the organisational structure and context are significant factors that influence learning at work (not directly related to mentoring). Eddy et al. (2005) discussed the potential factors which can impact the effectiveness of developmental interactions and these included personal factors, relationship factors (including those with managers) and communication factors. Stok-Koch et al. (2007) discussed the key domains that influenced workplace learning on a medical education programme: the working environment, educational factors in the workplace, learner characteristics and supervisor characteristics. He discussed social integration: a sense of belonging and the people present in the workplace as contributing factors to learning, and cited excessive workload and an unstable organisation as the two key characteristics which impeded workplace learning. Building on this, Eraut (2000, 2004, 2007) and his studies into factors which influence learning in the workplace, concluded that confidence has an overwhelming impact on

workplace learning. He stated that confidence came from feeling supported towards meeting the challenges set, suggesting a triangular relationship between challenge, support and confidence. He presented another triangle too that focuses on contextual factors which influenced learning at work: how work is allocated and structured, relationships with experienced others and performance expectations. He also concluded that managers have a huge influence on organisational culture and learning in the workplace that goes far beyond their explicit job role and responsibilities.

More specifically, Hegstad and Wentling (2005) cited facilitating and hindering factors directly related to mentoring. These included top-level management support, open multiple modes of communication and a comfortable team focussed environment as facilitating factors. Not seeing mentoring as a management priority, time constraints, organisational changes, distance/location of pairs and HR challenges due to lack of resources were seen as the biggest hindering factors. They concluded that middle management were often blocking mentoring effectiveness by not allowing subordinates the time necessary to develop their relationships or placing undue requirements upon them.

Eby et al.'s study (2006) showed that mentors, who felt that managers were supporting the mentoring programme, were more likely to see the benefits and rewards of being involved. Allen et al. (2006) agreed that immediate manager support may impact the effectiveness of mentoring programmes too. Later, Parise and Forret's study (2008) and Jones (2014) showed that perceived management support is a critical factor that will influence motivation and willingness to participate in mentoring programmes. If managers are supportive and can see the value in it, then mentees feel that their involvement will be recognised and valued too.

Garvey (2010) suggested that mentoring can also be ineffective because of practical and logistical issues, relationship issues, scheme issues and organisational-related issues. Yavuz (2011) in her study of the problematic context of mentoring in education discusses the uncooperative school management among the key issues in the workplace. In Morris and Shinn's (1999) study of diverse police officers, they mention the importance of management support and fairness in command,

supported later by Tyler and McKenzie's (2011) study of mentoring first year police constables who state that the context of mentoring is varied, yet how mentoring is carried out has similarities.

Thurston et al. (2012) discussed the barriers to mentoring in a large, global insurance organisation and discovered that disapproving supervisors were not a significant barrier but felt that managers not discouraging nor encouraging mentoring relationships led to less effective relationships (Jones, 2014). Thurston et al. (2012) suggested that leaders can help managers realise that they cannot always support their learning and/or their career advancement directly, but they can offer mentoring to those most in need and a 'safety net' if things do not work out as planned.

The importance of management support or lack of it seems to be an underlying theme. Also, according to Young and Perrewé (2000), the perception of the organisational climate and potential mentees' feelings about their job security and career enhancement opportunities will have an impact on whether mentoring is positively pursued. The suggestion is that in times of organisational stability, mentoring can be used to assist learning and development opportunities but in times of change, it may not be available or perceived as essential.

Garvey et al. (2014) suggest too that mentoring is hugely challenged in an unstable workplace environment. The suggestion being that mentoring may be disbanded, that the focus of the mentoring conversations become more short term focussed and/or become more like friendships between individuals sharing a 'common difficult fate' (p. 173).

This area of study is relevant to this doctoral research as it shows that micro and macro factors from within the relationship and within the workplace will affect the mentoring relationship either positively or negatively. It will be important to understand these factors in order to maximise the positive contributing factors and minimise the negative aspects, in order to ensure mentoring programmes are as effective as they can be.

Zachary (2000) stated that the reason why some mentoring programmes are more successful than others, and those that sustain better over time, are due to them being embedded in an organisational culture that values learning. Clutterbuck (2015) supports this view by stating that in order to prepare a company for a mentoring programme, there needs to be an understanding of the organisation culture. Mentoring and organisational culture has only been addressed directly in two mentoring articles (Fletcher & Mullen, 2012; Kochan et al., 2015) but not specifically in relation to its impact on learning.

Organisational culture is hard to define (Konteh, Mannion & Davies, 2010) but every organisation has one. This can be either informal and/or formal and is determined by the way employees express themselves, the sort of language they use and stories they tell, the organisational memberships they belong to, for example the Freemasons which are still men only (Wilson, Ashton & Sharp, 2001) and the organisational histories and experiences they are part of (Schein, 1996). Organisational culture is often referred to 'as the way we do things around here' (Bower, 1966, p. 22) or 'the pattern of assumptions, values and norms' that are shared (Cummings & Worley, 2005, p. 509) by all the employees in the organisation and that new recruits are socialised into when they arrive.

Goffee and Jones (1998) created four types of culture based on two dimensions, sociability and solidarity, namely networked, communal, fragmented and mercenary. This complimented Handy's (1991) four basic types of organisational culture: club/person (communal), role (mercenary), task (networked) and existential/power (fragmented) culture. The club/person culture tends to embrace likeminded people forming networks/friendships and the role culture concerns the importance of rules and procedures and tends to have an all-powerful hierarchy. Both relate well to the police, although Silvestri (2003) contends that role best describes the culture of the police, due to the hierarchical nature of the police and how power is distributed. There is also a task/networked culture where workplaces tend to have self-contained teams which are connected by one overall strategy and existential/power cultures where professionals are respected for their valuable talents; both of these organisational culture types relate well to the NHS. Bate (2000) refers to these as a collaborative networked community and a rigid and divided hierarchy.

Organisational culture creates a backdrop to the power relationships in an organisation (Maddock, 1999) and informs how people feel and think, how they make decisions and how they commit to act in that workplace (Deal & Kennedy, 1982; Bate, 2000; Lok & Crawford, 2004). As culture dictates the mind-sets and practices within an organisation, it is a very important aspect to consider in relation to the acceptance of new ideas or working practices such as mentoring, as it can make it more or less accepted and possible by its influence and actions. Maddock (1999) and Garvey et al. (2014) state that traditional hierarchies with a directive approach to learning, for instance within an authoritarian type culture, do not lend themselves to a developmental culture. Although it may well be that pockets of sub-cultures (Schein, 1996) may be somewhat different to the overriding organisational culture that is initially exposed, and so certain areas of a business may embrace certain initiatives over others.

This area of study is relevant to this doctoral research as there is a clear criticism in chapter 1 that very few mentoring articles refer to the nuances of the organisational context or the organisational culture, in relation to mentoring. Yet it is clear from the discussion that every workplace has a culture which fits into the types, models and dimensions mentioned earlier, and will affect and is affected by the individuals within it. Therefore, it is important to know what this may involve within the case study organisations studied, in order to fully understand what aspects of this will help and hinder learning, and specifically mentoring within the workplace.

With this in mind, the next sections refer to both the NHS (briefly) and UK Police Force (in more detail as this is the main focus of the study) in relation to its context and culture, in order to set the scene for this doctoral study.



## **5.2 The UK National Health Service (NHS).**

The NHS Act (1948) was part of the Labour Government's post war social welfare policy plans, with its aim to provide universal medical benefits to the entire UK population. The idea was that all health care providers, hospitals, doctors, nurses, pharmacists, opticians and dentists, should be available to all and free at the point of delivery, as it is funded through taxation. Although since 1951, prescriptions, glasses and dental treatment are paid for by individuals, unless under a certain age or income bracket ([www.nhs.co.uk](http://www.nhs.co.uk), 2015).

The NHS was launched in 1948 covering 480,000 hospital beds (Tweddell, 2008) and has since developed into the world largest public funded health service ([www.nhs.co.uk](http://www.nhs.co.uk), 2015). There are currently 155 acute trusts (including 101 foundation trusts), 56 mental health trusts (including 43 foundation trusts), 34 community providers (15 NHS trusts, three foundation trusts and 16 social enterprises), 10 ambulance trusts (including five foundation trusts), approximately 8,000 GP practices and 853 for-profit and not-for-profit independent sector organisations, providing care to NHS patients from 7,331 locations (Hunt, 2015). In the UK, the NHS is the largest employer, employing over 1.7 million people. In 2014, 21% of these were doctors (including surgeons), 52% qualified nurses, 22% qualified scientific, therapeutic and technical staff and 5% managers (Hudson, 2015). The NHS is also the fifth biggest employer in the world, with the top of the list being the US Department of Defence with 3.2 million (Telegraph, 2012).

The NHS is often launching initiatives and investigating various healthcare trends in the UK. For instance, in 1991 the first (57) NHS Trusts were set up and in 1998 NHS Direct was launched. In 2002 PCT (Primary Care Trusts) were launched but due to a change of Government, were abolished in 2013. In the 1980s the Black Report was commissioned by the Secretary of State, to investigate the inequality of healthcare, for instance the gaps between social classes and their use of medical services, infant mortality rates and life expectancy. The suggestion was that lower income families are more likely to die earlier than those better off. The Whitehead Report (1987) and the Acheson Report (1998) found the same trends.

Due to political involvement and pressure, the NHS is constantly changing, not just due to the Government's NHS Reform Agenda, that is the NHS White Paper (2010) which ensured patients were at the heart of everything that the NHS did and the The Health and Social Care Act (2012) which improved commissioning powers of the NHS, particularly GPs (General Practitioners/Doctors) but also indirect pressure from pressure groups and the community in which it serves, to create a healthier nation; for instance, introducing smoking bans and Change4life campaigns ([www.nhs.co.uk](http://www.nhs.co.uk), 2015).

The NHS cost taxpayers approximately £113 billion (Cooper, 2014) in 2014/2015. The budget spend was £437 million in the year the NHS was first launched. There has been for many decades a funding crisis within the NHS, but ever since the worldwide financial crash of 2008 this has become an increasingly acute issue due to spending cuts or constraints, ever growing patient demand due to increased obesity rates, people living longer, and a rise in the UK population. There is also rising Government and public pressure and expectation after some high profile failures in medical practice (Konteh et al., 2010), for instance, the Francis Report (2013) scandal in relation to the Mid Staffordshire Foundation NHS Trust. This report mentioned a negative organisational culture throughout perpetuated by the leaders' and managers' drive for business results, irrespective of the standards expected and the needs of the patients. This goes completely against the ethos of 'the patient first'.

Francis puts this down to fundamental issues within the culture of the organisation at the time. As mentioned, the NHS has an overall task/networked culture where employees tend to work within self-contained teams which are connected under one roof (the hospital) and also display factors of an existential/power culture where individuals or professionals are respected for their valuable talents. This culture may suggest that aspects of the organisation work as separate units or silos and so communication between specialisms or departments may be lengthy or constrained. However, they need to work in a networked way to support the patients, for instance from Accident and Emergency to surgery to wards. Also, the NHS displays a number of sub-cultures which may complement each other as they have similar underlying values (for instance, patient safety) or

contradict one another depending on perceptions of their occupational specialisms (for instance, surgeons and nurses).

Kulkarni (2014) states that there is much about the NHS that is good and that does not have to change, yet in 2001, the Kennedy Report suggested that the NHS must review its culture, must develop and must change in order to ensure a higher quality patient focused provision, whereby better clinical outcomes made for a healthier nation (Abbasi, 2011). Culture change requires a critical mass and so takes a majority organisational effort over a lengthy period of time. Kulkarni (2014) suggests that culture change in the NHS is largely neglected due to bureaucratic systems, fragmented ways of working and clinicians' resistance towards innovation and change, stating that they are often obstructive and sometimes hostile.

However, with the Government increasing pressure and demands on NHS workers (Braithwaite, 2010) through freezing pay, cutting pensions and increasing workload (Kulkarni, 2014), with reducing budgets and constant change bringing about low staff morale within the NHS (Abbasi, 2011), this is becoming increasingly hard to achieve (Elcock, 2012). Elcock (2012) makes the suggestion that the NHS is in need of role models to demonstrate the way forward but there is a lack of these, which in turn suggests that the new generation will not be role models to their full potential either. However, choosing the right mentors can act as very powerful role models.

Following the Francis Report, the Secretary of State for Health wrote to all the Chairs of all the Trusts to learn from the failings of the Mid Staffordshire Foundation NHS Trust and to encourage them to put more emphasis on developing an open, more transparent culture (Glasper, 2013). This report showed a substantial lack of passion and a bullying culture, led from the top, whereby complaints were discouraged and not listened to. The hope is now that this has highlighted the need to encourage a more open, caring culture, again led from the top, where complaints are raised without fear, are investigated and acted upon; there is transparency about performance and outcomes and ultimately candour, whereby problems are remedied. Leadership is key to fostering a

nurturing, more caring culture where employees feel respected, valued and supported at all levels (Kulkarni, 2014.)

It is important for this doctoral study to provide more detail about the NHS culture and context, as this is the first case study organisation referred to in this research and as already stated the context will have a bearing on how mentoring has been perceived, implemented and engaged in, within the organisation.

### **5.3 The UK Police.**

The modern UK Police Force was developed in the 19<sup>th</sup> century in response to problems of crime and security.

Suggested (but not substantiated) rising levels of crime and disorder from the rapid growth of cities, especially the capital city, led to Peel's Police reform and the establishment of the 'new' police, starting with the Metropolitan Police, through the Metropolitan Police Act (1829) (Wilson et al., 2001; Reiner, 2012). The Metropolitan Corporations Act (1835) and the County and Borough Police Act (1856) spread the (new) Police across the UK and crime rates began to fall. Peel was very clear that police recruits needed to be respectable, fit and literate, working class men under the age of 35. Note that all the early recruits were male only.

The purpose of the 'new police' was to maintain social control, public order, prevent theft and to detect offenders or was it the propertied middle classes who wanted to create an institution to protect their assets and control the unruly working classes (Weiner et al., 2001).

Interestingly, police constables were given pocket books with rules and procedures for them to follow and this included preventing boys from flying their kites dangerously in the streets.

The plan was to establish a full-time police force within a bureaucratic hierarchy (Reiner, 2012).

Once the Metropolitan Police was established, the creation of other (new) Police forces in other areas of the UK followed.

Ranks were introduced and the promotion system became a means of bureaucratic control (Miller, 1999). The ranking system is still very prevalent today, reinforcing the hierarchical nature of the organisation.

For the first two years in the Police, every police officer works in a Local Police Unit (LPU) as a probationary (uniformed) constable. Within these two years they will be trained and supported by longer serving police officers in doing a number of diverse tasks: they will cover patrolling the beat, dealing with crime reporting, traffic accidents and traffic offences, social disorder, emergencies, community based activities, for example crime prevention, visiting schools and so on. After two years, they can then apply to a more specialist role, for instance in community liaison, investigative services or a wider police role (for example the National Criminal Intelligence Service) or stay within their uniformed services role. After these two years, they can start to consider promotion opportunities within the Force (Wright, 2002). Traditionally, all new police officer employees started the same way but more recently a Direct Entry Superintendent programme has started (in 2015) which gives accelerated promotion after two years into this higher ranking role. However, again they start with some time (six months in these cases) on the beat. This system of ranking suggests a 'working personality' of the police (Skolnick, 2006), where everyone starts in the same place as a constable on the beat and gets indoctrinated into the culture at the same time, in the same way.

Currently, there are 43 police forces in England and Wales with approximately 207,000 police workers. This is made up of approximately 61% police officer roles, 31% police staff roles and 8% police community support officers/other designated officers/traffic wardens (National Statistics 2015). The current UK Police Grant is £8.5 billion, which was set to reduce in 2015 (Barrett, 2014) but the Chancellor of the Exchequer, George Osborne, in his November 2015 Autumn Statement stated that there would be no cuts to the Police budget in 2015/2016 in the UK as the police protect us and as such, we must protect the police (BBC News, 2015).

Police forces are complex, powerful institutions as they are the institutions employed by the state to maintain order and to prevent and detect crime (Emsley, 1991). They are often full of ambiguity (Wright, 2002). Policing can be viewed by a number of perspectives or modes of practice: peacekeeping (as social order), crime investigation (and detection of crime), risk management (in relation to the problems of community safety and crime reduction) and the promotion of community justice (Wright, 2002). According to Fielding (1996 as cited in Wright, 2002), there are three models which characterise policing: enforcement (of the law), service (crime control) and community (maintaining public harmony). However in short, policing is about serving the community and controlling crime (Wilson et al., 2001). Police work is about preventing and detecting crime and preserving public harmony or it has been questioned whether they provide a means of state oppression focused on meeting the interests of the higher classes (Wright, 2002).

Reiner (2012) makes a social class comment too, suggesting that policing is aimed at ensuring social order and suggests that this order may be influenced by a conflict of interests between differentially placed social groups in a 'hierarchy of advantage' (p. 5). Reiner goes on to say that the effectiveness of policing is 'always debatable' (p. 5) with Wright (2002) agreeing that there is a certain amount of public interest in the police due to the controversy that often surrounds it.

For most people, everyday experiences with the Police are rare, so their opinions come from the media: what is seen on the news, fact based or fictional dramas (Wright, 2002). Authors (Wright, 2002) propose that since the 1960s, policing is increasingly unable to cope with the demands being placed on it. There have been corruption and malpractice stories (overuse of force, for instance during the Miners' Strike), unsatisfactory investigations (for instance, Stephen Lawrence and the Macpherson Report in 1999) that have begun to undermine the credibility of the Police, together with a lack of understanding about how best to meet the needs of an ever diverse community. Groups that are low in power and status are disproportionately likely to be stopped or suspected of crime due to stereotypical assumptions made about poor, unemployed, ethnic minority, young, gay, men (Reiner, 2012) and this has become a perennial problem within the Police. Policing needs to become more accountable, more flexible and more responsive but there is a huge amount of

expectations weighed onto them, as morale continues to ebb away, crime rates are ever increasing and there is increasing pressure for results. There is a sense from within public and political arenas that they are never going to be able to deliver, and so the Police have come under increased scrutiny (Wilson et al., 2001).

Attempts have been made to reform the Police (the 1993 White Paper on Police Reform, subsequent Home Office Reports discussing research and initiatives, with ethnic minority recruitment high on every force agenda) but the problems are as great as ever, with police performance in serious decline and crime levels increasing (Wilson et al., 2001), there is nothing to suggest the tide is turning (Wright, 2002).

Other social factors come into play which include rising poverty levels, increase in consumer spending (more items to steal) increased number of young people (10-24 year old males more likely to commit crime), increased unemployment, new technologies and use of the internet but the biggest problem is the rise in poverty (Wilson et al., 2001). Despite its setbacks and complexities, the UK Police remain a role model police force for other countries and is considered the 'best in the world' for those nations who seek to adopt a more consensual rather than confrontational style, and who seek to use the police as a service to others and not as a dominating force (Wilson et al., 2001).

'Cop culture' is about police officer beliefs, assumptions, attitudes and behaviours which shape the discretionary behaviour of police officers and their police practice (Westmarland, 2001; Wilson et al., 2001; Waddington, 2006; Reiner, 2012). As already discussed, police forces can be viewed as having both a club/person culture and a role culture. As previously mentioned, Silvestri (2003) contends that role best describes the culture of the Police, due to its strict hierarchical nature and power base. Forces face similar problems and similar pressures that shape their distinctive culture (but these are not unique to the Police, as some factors can be seen in other large public sector organisations too). Different forces have different outlooks as there are different variables but there are certain commonalities.

*‘Cop culture offers a patterned set of understandings that helps officers cope with the pressures and tensions confronting the police. Successive generations are socialized into it...the process of transmission is mediated by stories, legends, jokes, exploring models of good and bad conduct’ (Reiner, 2012, p. 118).*

Individuals join the Police for the action centred, action-packed, thrill seeking nature of the job and as a result, potentially deal with danger on a daily basis (Skolnick, 2006; Reiner, 2012). Most police officers join to control crime and disorder, which creates a cult of masculinity ‘celebrating the willingness and ability to use force’ (Waddington, 2006, p. 380). They are trained to be suspicious which may breed cynicism and pessimism in their role over time, which may impact their ability to embrace change (Skolnick, 2006; Wilson et al., 2001).

Traditional police culture is about old fashioned machismo; sexism reinforced by laddish humour, over drinking and a high divorce rate. Reiner (2012) suggests that this is a product of the masculine ethos and the tension built up by the work. The Police encourages internal solidarity, as there is a huge amount of pressure to fit in and be accepted by the culture as they may need to rely on colleagues in times of back-up but also they experience common external social isolation through hostility from the public, lack of contact with others due to unsociable hours, becoming overworked/stressed and tensions from the working day (Reiner, 2012). This helps to create a ‘them and us’ type culture between the Police and the outside world but also within the Police, where police officers (uniformed) do not always respect and/or wish to work directly with those in police staff roles (non-uniformed supporting roles, for example Finance, Training and Human Resources) as they do not necessarily understand the trials of the front-line job. There is also a ‘them and us’ culture between the differing rank levels, higher, middle and lower levels. The literature discusses many negative aspects of cop culture but does not always take into account that this varies depending on unit, county and country suggesting that there are multiple police cultures (Chan, 2006).



Waddington (2006) discusses a need to have an appreciative understanding of the police culture, stating that it is not free standing and does not exist in a vacuum. He states that the police culture seeks to provide meaning to police experiences and helps those involved to maintain self-esteem. He discusses the police canteen where jokes, banter and anecdotes are shared as a means of sharing like-minded experiences but also as a coping strategy. Dwelling on war stories celebrating the real job and displaying courage in the face of threat (Waddington, 2006) is widely valued. For example, for one of the case study organisations that collaborated in this doctoral study it was much celebrated that an ACC (Assistant Chief Constable) had been shot in the line of duty. He was considered a hero. Police officers are crime fighting heroes doing dirty work and devote time to dignifying it and normalising it (Waddington, 2006).

It is important for this doctoral study to provide more detail about the police culture and context, as this is the setting for two case study organisations, the core study and the final organisation too. As already stated, the context will have a bearing on how mentoring has been perceived, implemented and engaged in, within the organisation.

Although at first quite distinct workplaces, there are some general similarities between the two contexts and cultures of both the NHS and the Police, as shown in Table 5.1.

This table shows that these two different public sector organisations differ in relation to history, purpose and number of employees but noticeably there are similarities in terms of how they are funded, their purpose (to protect and help), their more reactive short-term focus, their competing sub-cultures and their issues, including the dominance of women at lower levels.

For this doctoral study, it has been important to understand the two differing types of organisation included in this study as the culture and context of the workplace will have a bearing on the information shared by the two parties involved. In particular the extent to which they feel able to share their views, how restricted they might feel within the workplace and how enabled they may feel to engage in mentoring. It is also important to make the point that although they are quite

different workplaces, there are similarities between them and so this suggests that through this research, there may well be similarities that emerge that may mean that the results could be common across (and perhaps even beyond) these two contexts.

**Table 5.1** - Summarising the NHS and Police context and culture together

Point of comparison	NHS	Police
Established	1948	1829 (New Police)
Number of employees	1.7 million people	207,000 people
Workforce dominated (generally) by	Women 77%	Men 72%
Original purpose	Healthcare free to all Save lives	Detecting and reducing crime Keeping the peace
<b>Mission</b>	<b>To protect and help the public</b>	<b>To protect and help the public</b>
<b>Focus</b>	<b>Pragmatic/short term Dealing with daily crises</b>	<b>Pragmatic/short term Dealing with daily crises</b>
Budget	£113 billion	£8.5 billion
(Majority) funded by	<b>The Government, through taxation</b>	<b>The Government, through taxation</b>
<b>Political involvement/reform</b>	<b>Yes</b>	<b>Yes</b>
Culture	Task/networked Existential/power	Club/person Role
<b>Distinct sub-cultures (them and us)</b>	<b>Nurses Vs Doctors</b>	<b>Police Officers Vs Police Staff</b>
<b>Issues</b>	<b>Low morale High workload Reducing terms and conditions (e.g. pensions) Constant change</b>	<b>Low morale High workload Reducing terms and conditions (e.g. pensions) Constant change</b>
<b>Media coverage</b>	<b>Scandal Corruption Malpractice Culture change needed</b>	<b>Scandal Corruption Malpractice Culture change needed</b>

Note: The characteristics highlighted in bold demonstrate the similarities between the two contexts.

#### 5.4 A formal mentoring and learning theoretical framework.

As a result of the synthesis of the literature on formal mentoring, learning and organisational context discussed in the preceding chapters, a summary framework of the key research in relation to these three areas has been developed for this doctoral study and can be seen in Appendix I. This framework is based on the Wanberg et al. (2003) dynamic process model but has been informed by

a variety of other sources including Connor & Pokora, 2007; Daloz, 2012; Hale, 2000; Hegstad & Wentling, 2005; Kirkpatrick, 1996; Kochan et al., 2015; Kram, 1988; Zachary, 2012.

This formal mentoring and learning framework captures the key findings from previous researchers in relation to formal mentoring, learning and context. It provides a theoretical overview of the key theory discussed in chapters 2, 3, 4 and 5 of this doctoral study. It summarises what is already known about the inputs, the moderating factors and the outputs (the learning outcomes) of formal mentoring relationships.

It also highlights where the key research questions for this study are located (sections highlighted in blue with red writing), showing that there are still gaps in our understanding of formal mentoring in terms of learning outcomes for both parties (research question 1 and 2), in relation to moderating factors (research question 3 and 4) and across the various phases of the mentoring lifecycle (research questions 2 and 4).

As a reminder, the specific questions which guided this doctoral study are:

1. What do mentees and mentors perceive they are learning during their formal mentoring relationships?
2. How does the learning change over time for both parties?
3. What are the factors that moderate mentee and mentor learning during their formal mentoring relationships?
4. How do these moderating factors change over time for both parties?

In summary, Appendix I helps to identify what the key variables may be within formal mentoring and how they appear to be related to each other (Miles & Huberman, 1994). This study will now proceed to describe the methodology and methods used and the findings found, in an attempt to address some of these variables.

### **5.5 Structure of following chapters.**

The methodology and methods chapter 6 (section III) will discuss the philosophy, approach, strategy and methods employed to address these four research questions.

This is then followed by the findings section (section IV) which outlines the different domains in which the mentors and mentees perceived they were learning, and the key enabling and hindering factors for the NHS (chapter 7), the core Police study (chapter 8) and the additional Police study (chapter 9.) This is then followed by chapter 10 where a cross-case comparison is conducted in an attempt to reach for transferability across the three case study organisations.

Finally, this study ends with the discussion and conclusion section (section V) which discusses the key findings using the key theory from the literature review with limitations of the study (chapter 11) and recommendations for future mentoring practice (chapter 12).

## SECTION III – METHODOLOGY AND METHODS

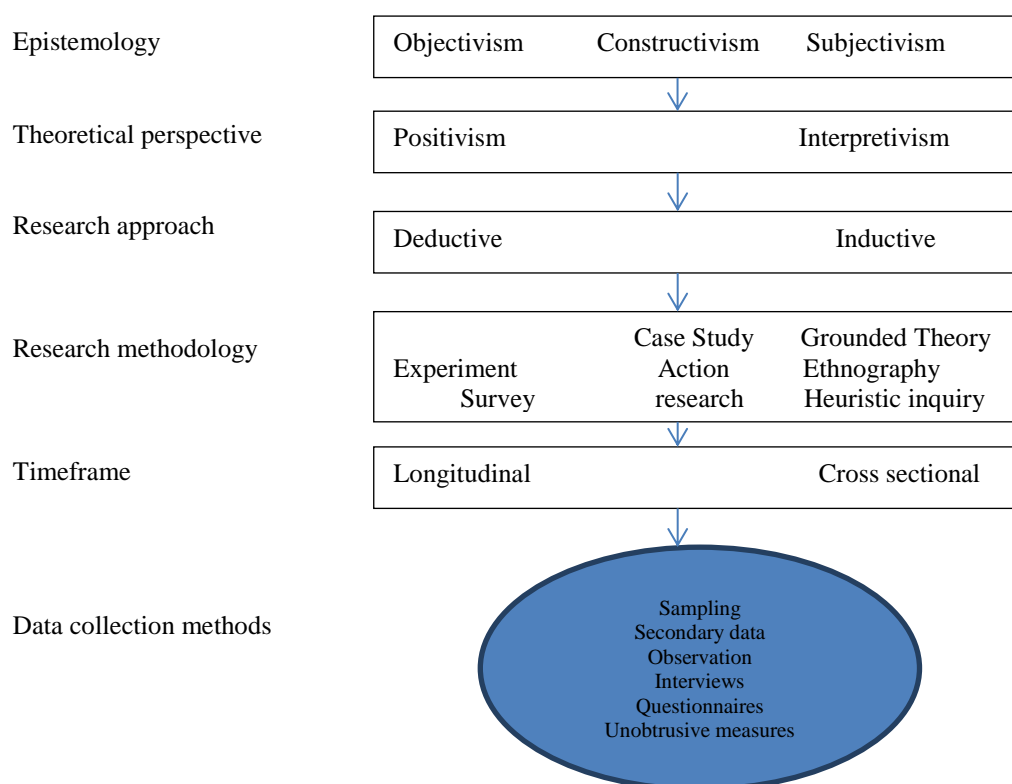
## Chapter 6 – Methodology and Methods

This section (chapter 6) discusses the research philosophy, approach and methodologies behind this research and the methods employed.

This Fig 6.1 below helps to show the key elements of this methodology and methods chapter.

Initially, the research philosophy will be discussed in relation to the ontological and epistemological stance taken. Then the theoretical perspective will be discussed in more detail, together with the research approach. This is then followed by a section on research methodology, the longitudinal approach and the qualitative data collection and data analysis methods used.

**Fig 6.1 - The elements of the research process**



Source: Gray, 2014, p. 35.

Three case studies will also be discussed in more detail; the numbers and types of mentors and mentees involved, the frequency of data collection, the use of a tape recorder and transcriber. How the information is analysed is also made clear with reference to the NVIVO software and a discussion of the routes taken to ensure reliability (dependability, confirmability and trustworthiness ) and validity (credibility, transferability, authenticity and plausibility) throughout. Research ethics are then discussed in more detail, concentrating on how informed consent was received and professionalism maintained throughout.

### **5. 1. Research philosophy.**

This section will introduce and discuss the ontological, epistemological and theoretical perspectives available and those taken within this research study.

Ontology is concerned with our assumptions about how the world is made up, in other words the nature of reality. Objectivism is an ontological stance that suggests that social entities exist, are fixed and are detached from the environment, also referred to as realism. Subjectivism suggests that social entities are created by the perceptions and actions of others, so there are many truths, also referred to as relativism. These are the two most discussed ontological stances which take opposite opinions. However, Easterby-Smith, Thorpe and Jackson (2012) cite other positions along the continuum: internal realism (recognising that the truth cannot be accessed directly) and nominalism (that there is no one truth as this varies from place to place and person to person). Saunders et al., (2016) suggest a middle ground in the continuum of objectivism and subjectivism: 'pragmatism.' They suggest that the most important determinant of which research philosophy to be adopted is the research question:

*'If the research question does not suggest unambiguously that either a positivist or interpretivist philosophy is adopted, this confirms the pragmatists view that it is perfectly possible to work with both philosophies. This mirrors a theme...that mixed methods, both qualitative and quantitative, are possible, and possibly highly appropriate, within one study' (p. 110).*

The research in this study moves between the pragmatic and subjective/relativism end of the continuum, recognising that people's perceptions are influenced by a variety of factors; themselves, others and their environment and also recognising that a multiple methods approach might be an appropriate approach to gather and analyse these perceptions.

Ontological stances relate directly to the epistemological stance taken within research.

Epistemology is about our beliefs in terms of how we might discover knowledge about the world or what is constituted as acceptable knowledge in the study (Saunders, Lewis & Thornhill, 2016) and there are a number of choices within social science research. As can be seen by Fig 6.1, there are typically three choices of epistemological stance: objectivism (that there is one truth out there), constructivism (meaning and truth are constructed through our interactions with the world) and subjectivism (meaning is individual to each and all individuals).

Objectivism is connected with the more scientific approach that suggests that the truth can be objectively uncovered: a positivist stance; and subjectivism suggests that truths are so unique and multiple: a social constructionist stance. It would not have been appropriate to adopt an objectivist stance to this study as many mentees and mentors were involved in his study, all with differing relationships, differing experiences and differing opinions about their learning, so there is an expectation that multiple truths will be uncovered and not one objective, overriding truth. This research did not adopt a strong subjectivist stance either (linked to the nominalism ontology) as there was not an expectation that the results will be wholly specific and individual to each person only.

The middle ground suggested by Fig 6.1 is constructivism (Gray, 2014); however, for this study a more appropriate middle ground between the dominant positions of positivism and relativism/social constructionism has been chosen: critical realism (Edwards, 2006). This approach recognises that there are 'real' forces with 'causal powers' at play and they are sensitive to the importance of the institutional context. As such it is the task of the social scientist researcher to

attempt to understand these forces and also attempt to determine when they will and will not occur (Edwards, 2006). Sayer (2000) states that a crucial implication of this stance is that these 'powers' may not be exercised, and therefore, what occurs or what has been known to occur may not be exhaustive of what could have occurred. With this, there is awareness that measuring the external reality may be difficult (but not impossible) to achieve (Gray, 2014).

*'Realists think that, although organised social life is undoubtedly complicated, it is not impossible to develop reliable accounts of it from research activities. In particular it is possible to account for key social processes that are at work beneath social appearances and explain otherwise puzzling outcomes.'* (Ackroyd & Karlsson, 2014, p.21).

In short, this approach is concerned with social relations and the dynamics between agency and structure (Scott, 2005) which attempt to provide explanations by looking for underlying causes, within an open social system (O'Mahoney & Vincent, 2014). Therefore this study has taken a critical realist position in order to uncover and appreciate the many different realities and meanings that mentees/mentors have created based on their mentoring interactions, whilst taking into account the influence of the organisational context (Cohen et al., 2011; Easterby-Smith et al., 2012; Bryman & Bell, 2015). Edwards, O'Mahoney & Vincent (2014) state that critical realism is orientated to discovery, understanding and transformational change. The purpose of this research is to discover the multiple perceptions of mentees and mentors towards their mentoring interactions, to better understand how they perceive they have been influenced by internal and external factors within the workplace and to analyse the (transformational) changes over time. In addition, it has been suggested that critical realistic researchers need to be aware of how their socio-cultural background and experiences might influence the research and so measures to minimise this potential bias are discussed later on.

Crotty (1998), (2014) and Edwards et al. (2014) suggested that there is an interrelationship between the epistemology, theoretical perspectives adopted, research approach, methodology and data collection methods used by the researcher. According to Gray (2014), positivist and interpretivism



tend to be the most influential theoretical perspectives and are compared and contrasted in the table (Table 6.1).

**Table 6.1 - Showing the Scientist vs Detective debate in relation to theoretical perspectives**

<b>Theoretical perspectives/ Key principles</b>	<b>Positivism</b>	<b>Interpretivism</b>
Underpinned by...	Objectivist ontology 'facts are facts'	Subjectivist ontology 'people are people'
Researcher as...	Scientist	Detective
The quest for...	Objective knowledge	Subjective knowledge
Research approach	Deductive/theory-testing	Inductive/theory-building
About...	Explaining why and how things happen	Understanding how and why things happen
Advantages:	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Economical collection of a large amount of data</li> <li>• Clear theoretical focus for the research from the outset</li> <li>• Greater opportunity for the researcher to retain control of the research process</li> <li>• Easily comparable data</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Facilitates understanding of how and why</li> <li>• Enables the researcher to be alive to changes which occur</li> <li>• Good at understanding social processes</li> <li>• Allows for complexity and contextual factors</li> </ul>
Disadvantages:	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Inflexible – direction often cannot be changed once data collection has started</li> <li>• Weak at understanding social processes</li> <li>• Often does not discover the meanings people attach to social phenomena</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Data collection can be time consuming</li> <li>• Data analysis is challenging and can be complex</li> <li>• Researcher has to live with the uncertainty that clear patterns may not emerge</li> <li>• Generally perceived as less credible by 'non researchers'</li> </ul>
Underpinning principle	The truth can be captured if we use the right methods	The truth is out there, but it is complex
Typical methods:	Quantitative: Survey, questionnaires, random sampling (more rigid)	Qualitative: Ethnographic study, in-depth interviews, analytical approaches (more flexible)

Adapted from: Raddon, (2010) p. 5-8.

This table shows that positivism is concerned with discovering phenomena within a strict set of scientific rules and observable laws, that is, there are facts and truths to be discovered that will test

theory and clearly explain why and how things happen. Quantitative methods are normally used within positivist studies which allow a large amount of data to be collected and easily compared but do not typically uncover the meaning people attached to responses. In short, the positivist stance suggests that the truth can be captured if the right methods are used. Much business research and indeed mentoring research has taken a more scientific positivist perspective (Wanberg et al., 2003; Lankau & Scandura, 2007), where the suggestion has been that the actions of human beings can be studied as objectively as the natural world (Fisher, 2004).

Interpretivism is considered to be an ‘anti-positivist stance’ (Gray, 2014, p. 23) which suggests that the world cannot be reduced into a small number of law-like generalisations but that richer insights are needed. In other words, there is not one answer only and that knowledge is subjective as the world is interpreted differently by different people (Saunders et al., 2016), and so research is less about confirming truths but understanding how and why things happen in order to build our understanding of theory.

Qualitative methods are normally used within interpretivist studies which help to provide information to build our awareness of social processes and contextual factors, however data gathering and analysis can be time consuming as results can be uncertain and complex. In short, the interpretivist stance suggests that the truth is out there but it is complex as it means different things to different people.

There are other theoretical perspectives including critical inquiry, feminism, and post-modernisation. Critical inquiry seeks to question and challenge currently held assumptions, as does interpretivism, but goes beyond this by seeking to change it. Feminism takes the stance that a person’s opinion is influenced by their social position and posits that women have a less distorted and deeper view of their reality than men. This study did not take a critical inquiry perspective as it was not the intention to change people’s views about their reality nor did it seek to take a feminist approach (although it does refer in part to differences between men and women) as responses from both men and women were included in the study, without gender judgements made. A post-

modernist perspective was not taken either as it was not the intention to demonstrate how the social world is represented collectively but to look at individuals.

Therefore, this study fits better with an interpretivist theoretical perspective as the central purpose is to understand the subjective world of the human experience (Cohen et al., 2011). This study is concerned with mentees' and mentors' perception of their reality within mentoring, which is hopefully the reality of what has happened but may not necessarily be what has actually happened. For this doctoral research, their perception of what has happened, their reality, is most important here. As such, interpretivism respects the differences between people (Bryman & Bell, 2015).

The key aim is to better interpret and understand social life. Hence, the researcher has taken the stance that individuals are complex and unique and so are their experiences. They are also part of a complex social and business environment in which they work. Therefore, there are many truths created by different people which may be highly influenced by the 'politics of the business and the commercial resources' (Easterby-Smith et al., 2012, p. 19). It was felt it would not have been helpful to suggest a scientific cause-effect link between variables (an objectivism epistemological stance and a positivist theoretical perspective) without an understanding of how individuals interact with and interpret the social world around them (Gillham, 2001).

Bryman and Bell (2015) discuss the fundamental differences between the quantitative and qualitative research approaches to social investigation, with qualitative emphasising the words, deeper richer data and taking a more inductive approach, as opposed to the quantitative research strategies being more likely to test theory more 'objectively' with an emphasis on quantifying the hard data collected. They conclude that a qualitative approach is more likely to fit with the interpretivist epistemological orientation and a constructionist ontological stance.

In short, this qualitative study fits better with a critical realist position and an interpretivist theoretical perspective, in an attempt to offer 'explanation, clarification and demystification' of

formal mentoring. Understanding the ontological and epistemological stance of this research helps to then guide decisions to be made about the most effective research strategy, design and methods to be used.

## **6.2 Research approach and strategy.**

This section will introduce and discuss the possible research approaches and strategy choices and makes clear the case study choice that has been taken within this research study.

The two choices in relation to research approach are deductive and inductive. As can be seen in Table 6.1, the deductive approach fits more clearly with a more positivist/scientific approach which seeks to test already established theory. For deductive research, the researcher is independent and detached from the study itself and typically the data collected needs to be able to be quantitatively defined (Saunders et al., 2016). A deductive approach was not used for this study as there was not an expected outcome, for instance a hypotheses or testable proposition. Nor were results rejected or accepted on the basis of what was found, and the researcher was not able to be detached from the case studies involved, as qualitative methods were considered to be the most appropriate methods to use.

Already for this research a more interpretative approach has been acknowledged. An inductive approach seeks to develop theory as a result of the data analysis, with no declared preconceived ideas of what results are expected. Research questions were asked in this study but clearly there were no hypotheses to be tested, the researcher was involved in all interviews and all focus groups (discussed later) and the questions were aimed at gathering different opinions about individuals' perceptions and experiences, within the different concepts. It was felt that a deductive approach would not allow the flexibility in research design that was needed for this research study approach nor would it have allowed a deeper understanding of why something may be perceived. Easterby-Smith et al. (2008) suggested that an inductive approach is better suited to understanding why

something is happening, rather than just being able to describe that it is happening. Also, as there is limited understanding of mentoring and learning, it would not have been possible to suggest a number of hypotheses as there was limited existing literature and established theory to test, from the outset. In short, for this study, an inductive approach has been taken in order to gather data to establish patterns, consistencies and meanings (Gray, 2014) and if possible, to establish any transferability between the three cases.

According to Gray (2014) research studies include both ‘truth seeking’ methods, for example more experimental approaches which generate more quantitative data and ‘perspective seeking’ methods, which fit more comfortably with the interpretivist approach and generate more qualitative data. Although again perhaps this is over simplistic as sometimes a more quantitative type method, for example a survey, can be used in a case study approach, however case studies are more typically associated with qualitative methods (Saunders et al., 2016).

‘Truth seeking’ methods, experiment and survey were not used in this research. Experimental research usually involves a hypothesis (this research did not), some accurate measure of outcomes and the approach is usually deductive, for instance, Olian, Carroll, Giannantonio & Feren’s (1988) three simulation studies researching what mentees look for within their mentors. Surveys, although a popular way of getting the same standardised questions to large groups quickly in a very cost-effective way, were not used because the aim was to explore more deeply the learning the mentees and mentors were experiencing personally within mentoring. So it was important to meet the participants face to face to gather this detail and to allow for flexibility and digging deeper into the answers. However, survey strategies have been used within mentoring research for many years, for instance Sambunjak, Straus & Marusic’s (2006) study of mentoring in a medical context using self-report surveys and Chun et al.’s (2012) study of nine Korean organisations.

‘Perspective seeking’ includes grounded theory, ethnography, action research, archival research and case study methods. The grounded theory approach starts with limited previous assumptions

and open research questions. This study was driven by an understanding of the theoretical gaps in the literature and created relevant research questions in order to address them, so it has not taken this approach. Ethnography research is an extended observation within the field of study and tends to be aimed at the study of culture and its relationship with behaviour. This study did not lend itself to an ethnographic study as it was not possible to gain continued access into the workplaces for confidentiality reasons. However this has recently been achieved in some mentoring research (Snoeren et al., 2016).

Action research is about ‘analysing the world but also trying to change it’ (Gray, 2014, p. 328). This research study was seeking to analyse the world of mentoring but the researcher did not act as a change agent during this research. Archival research is about seeking out relevant previous documents to help build up a picture of previous events and is typically associated with historic research but can also be used within the social sciences (Yin, 2014). This was not a strategy employed for this study as all three mentoring programmes were new to the organisations studied and so there would not have been any previous mentoring documentation to access. For this research study, all these strategies were rejected in favour of the ‘case study’ approach (Farquhar, 2012; Yin, 2014).

Case study research is defined as:

*‘A case study is an empirical inquiry that investigates a contemporary phenomenon (the “case”) in depth and within its real-world context, especially when the boundaries between phenomenon and context may not be clearly evident’ (Yin, 2014, p. 16).*

Gillham (2001) suggests that fundamental characteristics of a case study include seeking a variety of different evidence, suggesting that no one source of evidence is likely to be sufficiently valid on its own and that you do not start out with theoretical notions. Gillham (2001) suggests case study researchers work inductively to develop grounded theory and that data can be crammed into an unsuitable theoretical framework, with very little bearing on the reality of the cases investigated. He wonders if this is because these types of researchers do not like to think for themselves.

However, Yin (2014) states that theory development as part of the design phase is essential and acts as a blueprint for the research study, leading to stronger research questions and more relevant research design. With this in mind, a theoretical framework (in Appendix I) was developed mainly as a starting point and a guide, to inform the research questions and to suggest the likely explanations that may emerge. Also, the case study approach is normally associated with ‘how’ and ‘why’ questions whereby the researcher has no control over the outcomes (Gray, 2014); two out of the four research questions for this study are ‘how’ questions.

For this study, it was felt that case studies were the most appropriate approach to address the research questions, as case study research allows the researcher to look at the phenomenon in context (Farquhar, 2012). The intention for this study was to locate the ‘story’ of mentoring and the factors influencing it (Hitchcock and Hughes, 1989), so that themes may be isolated and discussed. So it was felt that interviewing a small number of mentors and mentees regularly over time, within their organisations (with follow up mentor and mentee focus groups) for the first two cases and then focus groups only for the final case study, was an appropriate approach to take in order to investigate the story of formal mentoring in its real life context.

Case studies, although still widely used in social research as well as in business and management research (Maylor & Blackmon, 2005) have been criticised for their ‘unscientific’ feel (Saunders et al., 2016, p. 185), although an objective single truth is not something case studies are hoping to achieve. Bryman and Bell (2015) appreciate that case study researchers do not delude themselves that they can identify typical cases and they do not think a case study is a sample of one. Yin (2014) states that the greatest concern in relation to case study research has been their lack of rigour, as many times researchers have been sloppy, unsystematic and biased in their reporting of results. Yin (2014) discusses the need to have several sources of data within each case or cases, which ultimately helps towards triangulating the evidence to ensure robust and credible results. Yin also talks about maximizing the number of studies, by stating that if you do a two-case case study,

the chances of doing a good case study will be better than just doing one, plus the analytical benefits of having two may be substantial (Yin, 2014).

Multiple cases were used for this study in order to gather different perspectives on the same phenomena but in different contexts. This then helps to establish whether the findings of the first case occurs in the other two cases and if so, whether transferability between cases can be reached (Saunders et al., 2016). This also helps to triangulate and explore the findings further, and to strengthen the assumptions being made from the findings, which in turn will help ensure credibility (Farquhar, 2012).

Case study research often requires a longitudinal element, and for the present study, this was necessary in order to establish what had changed over time for mentees and mentors; again a good reason to choose a case study approach. In summary, from a methodology perspective it has been recognised by various writers that mentoring researchers need to address gaps in qualitative studies, longitudinal investigations and perspectives from both sides of the mentoring dyad (Wanberg et al., 2003; Lankau & Scandura, 2007). Allen et al. (2008) further underpin this with their comprehensive review of 200 published mentoring articles, where they state that they could characterise mentoring research as primarily collecting quantitative data, using a single method and from a single source. St-Jean (2012) in another article related to maximising the learning within mentoring, suggests that further studies need to use a longitudinal perspective and consider the mentors' perspective too. Thus, this doctoral research seeks to address the gap in qualitative methods, to involve both parties of the mentoring dyad and to pay attention to the context through a longitudinal case study approach. As key research questions were set around mentors' and mentees' differing perceptions and experiences within their real-life context, the study relates well to a qualitative research rationale (Flick, 2006).



Therefore, following the conventions of Eisenhardt (1989) and Yin (2014), a longitudinal qualitative case study approach was chosen in order to gain insights into the phenomenon of formal mentoring, within its own longitudinal context.

### **6.3 Research design.**

This section will introduce the three collaborating case study organisations and makes clear the sampling method employed.

The structure of the study follows the ‘hourglass’ metaphor (Trochim, 2006). The researcher started with a broad notion that from a theoretical and practitioner viewpoint there was more to discover about formal mentoring in the workplace (as discussed in the introduction chapter). After further analysis it became clear that there were gaps in the literature and in practice in relation to formal mentoring and learning and moderating factors. Hence, this allowed the field to be narrowed and resulted in the formulation of the overarching central research question and the specific sub-research questions (as discussed in the literature review section). The next decision was then how to go about finding information to address these gaps, which prompted the question as to whether there were willing volunteers in mentoring programmes that were just about to start, that would be accessible and allow enough access to address the research questions over time. Luckily, a previous student of the researcher was about to embark on a pilot mentoring programme within the NHS and was looking for some support to monitor and evaluate the programme, so this was a sensible starting point. It gave an opportunity to use this as a ‘pilot case study’ to test the research design and data collection methods. Subsequent access to a larger number of participants came through as a result of some external mentoring work within the Police, which created enough information for a core case study. Even later, access to an additional Police force was granted, which allowed for the opportunity to attempt to reach for transferability between the Police cases as well as taking into account the findings from the NHS case.

In terms of structure for data collection, as two out of the four research questions were concerned with changes over time it was important to be able to secure access throughout the mentoring lifecycle so a longitudinal study was designed. Bryman and Bell (2015) report that longitudinal studies help to illuminate social change and improve our understanding of causal influences over time, helping to reduce ambiguity and show which variables come first. Carrying out a longitudinal study allowed observations to be made about changes and developments over time, in the respondent's world. Therefore, this research became more than just a snap shot and so over time was able to generate a deeper understanding of the mentoring relationships from the beginning, middle and end of the mentoring lifecycle. Kram's (1988) four phases of the mentoring lifecycle were used to initiate the data collection sessions, over time; namely at the end of the initiation phase (3 month point), at the end of the cultivation phase (6 month point), at the end of the separation phase (9 month point), and at the end of the redefinition phase (12 month point). It should be noted that this was condensed for the final case study (as will be discussed later.)

The collaborating organisations were keen to have their mentoring programmes within a fixed 9-12 months duration. According to Bozionelos et al. (2014) and Clutterbuck (2015) typically formal mentoring relationships last approximately 12 months, and this was the timescale actually operated within for all three case studies.

Creswell (2007) suggests that case studies are an appropriate approach when there are clearly identifiable cases with boundaries and where a deeper understanding is sought of those cases. As a case study approach was taken with this research, it is important to mention the unit of analysis was 'multiple cases – embedded.' For instance, there were three cases with the units of analysis being the perspectives of mentees and the perspectives of mentors but attention was also paid to the wider organisation and the influence that it may have had on the mentoring programme too.

As previously discussed, all three case studies used for this research were 'bounded' in the UK public sector; Healthcare and the Police.

### *Case Study 1*

The first (pilot) case study was within a Central England Healthcare Trust (referred to from now on as the NHS study). This involves two large hospitals which cover over 500,000 patients from the surrounding counties. This Trust employs approximately 5000 employees across the two main hospital sites. This Trust had been experiencing ongoing change with government pressures towards budget cuts and restructuring, at least two new Chief Executives being appointed within the last five years and certain specialist services being consolidated and transferred between the two sites. However, the L&D Department was well established here with respect of supporting mentorship programmes for the nursing group but were keen to offer similar services beyond this group and to further professionalise the L&D support offered. As a result, the L&D Department decided to launch a pilot formal mentoring programme to support both clinical and non-clinical members of staff in their part-time study for a postgraduate management qualification.

The formal mentoring programme was co-ordinated with close links made with the University tutors of the postgraduate qualification. All students past and present were invited to be part of the pilot programme, not all applied but all mentors and mentees who did were volunteers. Mentors were all experienced managers and most were or had been previous students doing the same qualification. Some mentors had mentored or been mentored before. The mentors were trained by an external training company, over three half days with two gaps in between for practice/reflection. The mentors were trained to the Institute of Leadership and Management (ILM) level 5 professional standard in Coaching and Mentoring (Certificate level) covering the three units on 'Understanding skills, principles and practice of effective management coaching and mentoring', 'Reviewing own ability as a management coach or mentor' and 'Demonstrating at least 12 hours coaching and mentoring in the workplace' (ILM, 2016). The mentor training involved learning about the basic skills required for mentors and the key mentoring tools, techniques and models of GROW, CLEAR and OSKAR (Megginson & Clutterbuck, 2005). Once the training was

completed, mentors had a group discussion with the L&D team to discuss their expectations before starting their mentoring relationships.

The mentees did not receive any training but did have an expectations discussion as a group, with the L&D team, before meeting their mentors too. Mentees were asked to choose their top three mentors from an on-line list, showing a short anonymous mentor work biography, and were matched as closely as they could be to their top choices. The researcher was not involved in the mentor training or the mentee matching but was invited to evaluate the programme from the beginning to the end. From a researcher point of view, access was granted fairly easily to this organisation and so this seemed a clear opportunity to test the validity of the data gathering methods before starting the core study.

The clear purpose of this formal mentoring programme was to help employees to recognise and work towards their personal and professional goals, in relation to the postgraduate qualification. This mentoring pilot started with six mentors and six mentees; six dyads but one pair did not carry on their mentoring relationship after a short period of time (and so their results were not included in this study) so only five dyads stayed actively involved in the research throughout. Appendix II shows a brief summary of the NHS mentors and mentees who participated in this study.

### *Case Study 2*

The core case study was within a Central England Police force (referred to from now on as the CEPF study). This police force covers one of the widest areas outside of the Metropolitan Police protecting over 2.5 million residents. This police force employs over 7,000 Police Officers and over 3,000 Police Staff. This Police force was in a middle of a significant change programme which involved a huge restructuring initiative from Operational Command Units to Local Policing Units. This coupled with ongoing government pressures towards budget cuts and a reduction in the number of police officers within police staff roles (putting them back onto the street) meant this was a turbulent time for the CEPF. In addition, the Home Office Assessment of Women in the

Police Service Report (2010) showed a significant lack of women in senior positions and so there became a drive from within the CEPF L&D Department to find ways of developing a more inclusive workforce and to increase focus on developing and promoting women.

The L&D Department was well established here with respect of supporting the technical training required to meet the needs of the police role but there was little support for mentoring programmes. Formal mentors were assigned to those who were promoted into new senior positions but they were not necessarily trained or proactive within this. Therefore, the L&D Department decided to seek external support to launch a pilot formal mentoring programme to support women's ability to cope and progress in these turbulent times.

The researcher was asked by the L&D team to design, deliver and evaluate a formal mentoring programme aimed at supporting and encouraging women to progress further within the Police. The formal mentoring programme was co-ordinated internally with the Police force and all women were invited to be part of the new programme; not all applied but all mentors and mentees were volunteers. Once numbers were considered to be manageable, mentors and mentees completed an application form and mentees were matched with those who were considered best placed by the L&D Department to support their future aspirations. Mentees were not offered any choice of mentor. All mentors were experienced women managers (in Police Officer or Police Staff roles), at least two ranks/positions higher than the mentees and some had mentored or been mentored before. Mentors received two one day training sessions with a two week gap between for practice/reflection, from the researcher before starting. The mentors were trained to the European Mentoring and Coaching Council Practitioner standard (EMCC, 2016) which is appropriate for those working as internal mentors/coaches in the workplace. All eight EMCC competencies were covered including: understanding self, commitment to self-development, managing the contract, building the relationship, enabling insight, outcome and action orientation, use of models and techniques and evaluation (EMCC, 2016). As such and similarly to the NHS case study, the mentor training involved learning about the basic skills required for mentors and the key mentoring tools, techniques and models of GROW, CLEAR and OSKAR (Megginson & Clutterbuck, 2005).

The mentees received a half day training session from the researcher too discussing the key skills of a mentee and the expectations of the mentoring programme, before they met their mentors. Apart from involvement with the training and evaluation of this mentoring scheme, the researcher had no other working relationship with this organisation.

The clear purpose of this formal mentoring programme was to support women and to help them progress within the organisation. This mentoring programme started with 23 trained mentors, most with two or even three mentees. There were 45 dyads in total (45 mentees). Appendix III shows a brief summary of the 19 CEPF mentors and 23 mentees who participated in this study.

### *Case Study 3*

The final case study was within a North England Police force (referred to from now on as the NEPF study). This police force covers one of the smaller counties in the UK protecting over one million residents. This police force employs over 3,500 people, of which over half of these are Police Officers (the rest are Police Staff.) This Police force was not in the middle of any large scale, significant change programmes and although dealing with the ongoing inevitable government pressures towards budget cuts and reducing the number of police officers within police staff roles (putting them back onto the street) too, this police force was experiencing a more stable time than the CEPF (and the NHS).

As with the CEPF case study organisation, the L&D Department was well established here but there were criticisms of the limited support given to meet the needs of the police role (most L&D activity was directed at the legislative requirements of the role only). Also similarly to the CEPF, formal mentors were assigned to those who were promoted into new senior positions but they were not necessarily trained or proactive within this. Following the establishment of the CEPF mentoring programme, the researcher was asked by the L&D team within the NEPF to design, deliver and evaluate a similar formal mentoring programme aimed at supporting their high potential

employees. From a researcher point of view, access was granted fairly easily to this organisation too and so this seemed a clear opportunity to test the findings from the core study, in an attempt to search for transferability across all three case study organisations.

The formal mentoring programme was co-ordinated internally with the Police Force and all managers were asked to put forward their high potential employees to be part of the new programme. This scheme was advertised force-wide too, so that potential mentees could encourage their managers to put them forward too. All mentors and mentees who applied were volunteers. All potential mentors and mentees completed an application form. Mentors were vetted by the Assistant Chief Constable (ACC) and all mentees who applied through their managers were accepted. Mentees were matched with those who were considered best placed by the L&D Department to support their future aspirations, but on the insistence of the ACC, they were matched as differently as possible. For example, a Police Officer with a member of Police Staff and vice versa. All accepted mentors were experienced managers (in Police Officer or Police Staff roles), at least two ranks/positions higher than the mentees.

As with the CEPF, mentors received two one day training sessions with a two week gap between for practice/reflection, from the researcher before starting. As before, the mentors were trained to the European Mentoring and Coaching Council Practitioner standard (EMCC, 2016) which is appropriate for those working as internal mentors/coaches in the workplace. All eight EMCC competencies were covered including: understanding self, commitment to self-development, managing the contract, building the relationship, enabling insight, outcome and action orientation, use of models and techniques and evaluation (EMCC, 2016). As such and similarly to the NHS and CEPF case study, the mentor training involved learning about the basic skills required for mentors and the key mentoring tools, techniques and models of GROW, CLEAR and OSKAR (Megginson & Clutterbuck, 2005).

As with the CEPF, the mentees received a half day training session from the researcher too discussing the key skills of a mentee and the expectations of the mentoring programme, before they

met their mentors. Apart from involvement with the training and evaluation of this mentoring scheme, the researcher had no other working relationship with this organisation.

The clear purpose of this formal mentoring programme was to support high potential employees within the organisation. Contrary to the CEPF mentoring programme, the NEPF one was open to both men and women. This mentoring programme started with 12 trained mentors, some with two mentees. There were 18 dyads in total (18 mentees). Appendix IV shows a brief summary of the numbers of the NEPF Police mentors and mentees who participated in this study, across all four cohort groups.

In summary, there were three component parts to this research design: (i) the pilot study in the NHS to test the method and questions used, (ii) the core case study in the Police and (iii) the additional case study in the Police. For ease of reference, Appendix V shows the context and approach to mentoring across all three case study organisations.

#### **6.4 Sampling and Data Collection.**

Qualitative research normally uses purposive non-probability sampling as it is exploring certain aspects from a particular source (Gray, 2014). This sampling technique was used for this study as the research respondents were all part of the mentoring population and were either mentors or mentees going through the mentoring process together. This gave an opportunity to access ‘knowledgeable people’, in other words those that had an in-depth knowledge about the mentoring programmes they were part of (Cohen et al., 2011).

It was possible to do ‘comprehensive sampling’ (Patton, 2002) within the NHS as there were such a small number of dyads (5), and the researcher was flexible in terms of when appointments were made with each party, although one of the mentors was not available for the final two interviews.



Using this homogeneous group within the NHS allowed the researcher to build a deeper relationship with the mentors and mentees over time and so gain a richer picture of their experiences (Silverman, 2013). It was not possible to use comprehensive sampling within the police forces as the numbers of mentees and mentors were much larger and as the data collection points were determined by the Mentoring Co-ordinators, it was not always possible to ensure the same people were available on the same days.

Being removed from the police environment meant it was not possible to use a variety of other sampling methods such as 'intensity sampling,' 'deviant case sampling,' 'maximum variation sampling' and 'typical case sampling' (Patton, 2002) as not enough information was built up about the various mentees and mentors over time in order to segregate them into particular groups. The whole mentoring group was not always available on the days proposed by the Mentoring Co-ordinator either, so the researcher was content to use 'convenience sampling' whereby those mentees and mentors who were able to make themselves available from the purposive group were included in the study.

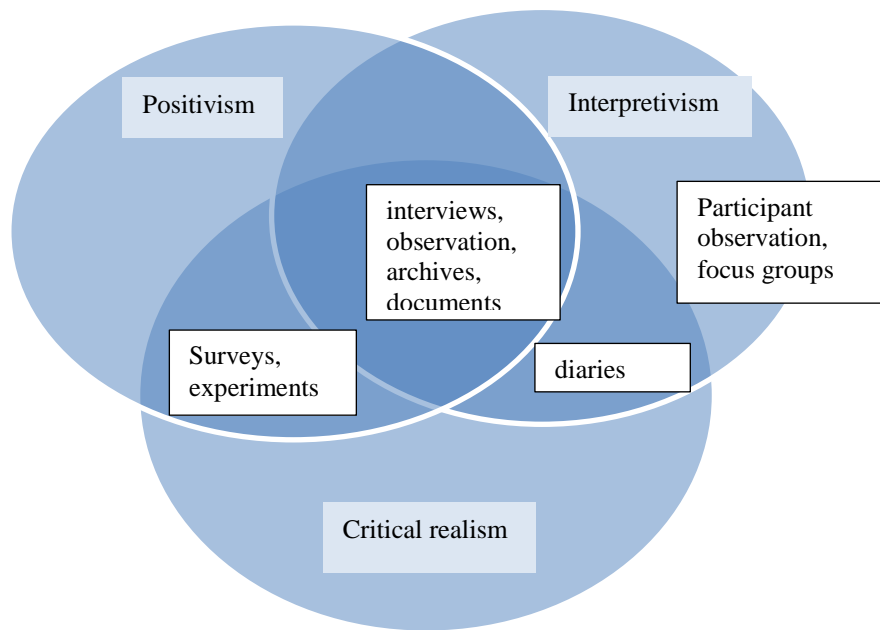
The size of the sample was determined for all cases by the number of mentees and mentors who applied to be part of the mentoring programmes. It suited the researcher that the NHS pilot case study involved a small number of participants as it allowed more access to all the participants to test the interview questions, in readiness for the core study. However, the larger the sample the more opportunities there were to show replication and so strengthen the validity and reliability of the findings. Creswell (2007) recommends a range of 20 to 40 participants within a sample for qualitative studies and the two Police studies were able to achieve this.

According to Gillham (2001) case studies require multiple sources of evidence. Consequently, the researcher concluded that a variety of data collection methods should be used, from more than one side of the planned dyadic mentoring relationships, as this would help in relation to ensuring the dependability of the findings, because multiple sources of evidence can provide the same answers

for the same construct. Gillham (2001) suggests that qualitative data collection methods allow the researcher to 'get under the skin' of a group or organisation to find out the reality which can only be perceived inside by those involved. According to Saunders et al. (2016), the two major techniques used by researchers to collect qualitative data are participant observations and individual interviews. According to Yin (2014) there are six key methods for gathering case study data and these are: documentation, archival records, interviews, direct observation, participant observation and physical artefacts. He also mentions methods specifically related to the interpretivist approach which are participant observation and focus groups. Fig 5.2 shows how the different methods dovetail with the key epistemological approaches.

All qualitative and case study methods of data collection (as cited in Fig 6.2) were considered for this study: observations, documentation including diaries, archival records, physical artefacts, interviews and focus groups. With these in mind, all these different data collection methods will be discussed; initially those rejected by the researcher with reasons why and then those that were actually used across the three cases will be discussed in more detail. Surveys, experiments, archives and documents will not be discussed here but have been mentioned briefly under research strategy earlier.

**Fig 6.2** Embedding data collection methods in epistemological approaches



Source: Farquhar, 2012, p. 66.

Baker (2002) states that observation is one of the three principal research methods, and is often used in ethnographic studies (Gray, 2014). The essence of observation is to look for meaning through observing others as well as reflecting on our own personal experiences (Singleton et al., 1993). Observations can be either overt or covert and can be either structured/non-participant where the researcher observes without interacting and unstructured/participant where the researcher observes from a member's perspective. Clearly, the researcher could not observe from a member's perspective as she did to work within the NHS nor the Police and so it was not possible to immerse oneself in the case study organisation nor within the mentoring relationships without creating an impact on the results. It was felt that observations would be too intrusive, especially as mentoring is a confidential relationship. Part of the ethical approval within all the case study organisations meant that access to discussions about patients (NHS) and colleagues (CEPF and the NEPF) could not be entered into. Although nothing was explicitly mentioned within the Police case studies about access to their 'customer' information, the inference in relation to safeguarding the public is much the same as within the NHS. In short, it was felt that observing the mentoring in action may have helped to avoid issues with common method bias (Podsakoff, MacKenzie, Lee & Podsakoff, 2003).

But it may have been intimidating for some (especially as in the Police case studies, the researcher had carried out the mentor training) and the outcomes may have been adversely affected by an overt observer presence, so this was not deemed appropriate. From an ethical standpoint it did not seem appropriate to suggest covert observation. This and bearing in mind that there is no pure, objective, detached observation, as the effect of the researchers presence is always apparent (Denzin and Lincoln, 2003), no observations were used in this study.

Physical artefacts within the NHS and the Police could have included mentoring meeting notes, emails between both parties, diaries and Personal Development Plans. The Mentoring Co-ordinators and/or L&D Departments did not deem it appropriate to have access to mentees' and mentors' personal and confidential information. However, mentees were asked to bring their Personal Development documentation to the researcher interviews as a prompt.

An interview is a 'conversation with a purpose' (Maykut & Morehouse, 2005, p. 75), not unlike mentoring. Yin (2014) suggests that interviews are an essential source of case study evidence and should be 'guided conversations' rather than being too formal and structured. There are a variety of interviews: structured, unstructured and semi-structured (Gillham, 2001). Structured interviews use a predetermined set of questions, they can be administered relatively quickly and the interviewee's response can be easily coded. Unstructured interviews tend to be more informal whereby the interviewer sets the topic but the interviewee sets the agenda. For this type of interview, the researcher goes in with a more open mind than structured interviews might. Semi-structured interviews are a combination of the two aforementioned interviews, whereby the interviewer presents a semi-structured list of themes or questions and has freedom to probe and follow up throughout. There is still a clear sense of the topics to explore and a sense of order in which to explore them but there is less chance of 'pigeon-holing' the respondents at the outset (as may occur with structured interviews).

According to Gillham (2001), semi-structured interviews are the most important type of interview in case study research. Semi-structured interviews allowed consistent themes and questions to be explored. Not having a completely fixed framework to follow allowed the researcher not to get too 'tied up' (Easterby-Smith et al., 2012, p. 127) in the formal structure and so allowed some flexibility between interviews for further probing and discussion, depending on the attitudes and opinions expressed in the conversational flow (Bryman & Bell, 2015). It was felt that busy people in Healthcare and Policing organisations may prefer to meet and reflect on events face to face, away from their daily work practices. Meeting people individually gave an opportunity for both the researcher and the mentees/mentors to build a rapport and an element of trust between each other, reiterate and share any questions and concerns about confidentiality, share feedback and be reassured by others. This was also the preference of the sponsoring organisations. However, the semi-flexible nature of these interviews could have led to some interviewer and interviewee bias, as the rapport was built up and assumptions were made and this is referred to later in this chapter.

Therefore, due to the face to face and flexible nature of interviews, they were deemed one of the most appropriate data collection methods for this study.

Focus groups, like interviews, are about a 'free flowing', but focused, discussion on a particular topic (Fisher, 2004, p. 133) and have become an important technique because they offer a way for researchers 'to listen to the plural voices of others' (Denzin & Lincoln, 2003, p. 384). It was hoped that the mentors and mentees would be willing to engage in a number of focus group discussions with mentoring colleagues, as they may see this as a chance to meet likeminded colleagues again, to meet those with similar needs and/or to share similar challenges. It is also a professional requirement for mentors to attend regular 'supervision' type sessions (EMCC Guidelines on Supervision 2016) to share their ideas, get support and ultimately aid their personal development.

In contrast to interviews, the researcher takes a more marginal role within focus groups, acting as facilitator or discussion stimulator but not as a director or guide. The 'unstructured nature' of the interaction between focus group members helps to take the emphasis off the researcher, as

facilitator, and so helps to reduce the influence of their views on the group, thus adding to the objectivity and limiting any bias and subjectivity.

*'Focus groups reduce the distance between the researcher and the researched...the unstructured nature of focus group conversations also reduces the researcher's control over the interview process' (Denzin & Lincoln, 2003, p. 57-58).*

However, it is recognised that the focus group environment is still in some part contrived and involves 'steered conversations' (Easterby-Smith et al., 2012, p. 133) giving less opportunity for personal responses and issues to be explored in greater depth. There is also concern about the joint production of meaning, as there may be some social or status pressure or dominance from others that may have constrained or influenced contributions, that could not be managed or be apparent by the facilitator/moderator.

Interestingly, some research suggests that focus groups offer a better opportunity to understand the 'lived experience' of women (Bryman & Bell, 2015, p.523) due to providing a more natural group setting, it's contextualised nature and the fact that there is a reduction in the power distance relationship between the female researcher and the female participants (which is more likely in a traditional interview setting).

All the focus groups carried out in all three case study organisations were held in a neutral work setting, out of the way of their normal place of work but still within the work environment, within work time. As part of the mentor agreement with the first Police force (CEPF), there was an expectation that mentors would come to at least one of the focus groups, this may explain the initial fairly high attendance rate for that one. There was no such agreement for the NHS and NEPF study.

Therefore, due to the more flexible and free-flowing nature of focus groups, they were deemed one of the most appropriate data collection methods for this study too. The advantage of using two qualitative methods, interviews and focus groups, is that they both provide insights into how research participants view the world. Also for both, the researcher has some control over the data

collection whereby they can follow up areas of interest and probe for further information or clarification to provide more complete, rich data.

In summary, Yin (2014) suggests three principles of data collection for case study research: use of multiple sources of evidence, creation of a case study database and maintenance of a chain of evidence. All of these were achieved in this research study and are discussed in the ‘ensuring the quality of the findings’ section later on.

To ensure the information was collected systematically, the same questions were asked of all mentees and mentors within all the interviews and within all the focus groups, for each case study organisation. However, within the NHS study, similarity and difference seemed to emerge as a common moderating factor. Consequently, a direct question about these factors was added into the core case study and the additional Police force one too. The questions used can be seen in Appendix VI. Despite similarity in the questions asked, how the data was collected from the three different case study organisations was different.

### *Case study 1*

For the NHS pilot study, Kram’s (1988) four phases of the mentoring lifecycle were used as the points for data collection over 12 months. Assumptions were made about the shifting nature of the mentoring programme and the relationships within it, in terms of the timescales and the phases of the mentoring cycle. Assumptions were made that in the initial first few meetings (from 0-3 months) that the rapport building would be achieved and expectations managed (initiation phase), that the action planning and some early progress would have been achieved within the first 6 months (cultivation phase), that further/longer term progress would have been achieved in the 6-9 month period as the mentee becomes more independent (separation phase) and that the relationship would be coming to closure after 12 months (redefinition phase.) Therefore, the data was collected at point 1; at the end of the initiation phase (3 month point), point 2; at the end of the cultivation

phase (6 month point), point 3; at the end of the separation phase (9 month point), and point 4; at the end of the redefinition phase (12 month point).

The researcher was given the contact details of all mentors and mentees and made her own appointments to meet both parties. There was no Mentoring Co-ordinator involved in setting up the interviews, so the researcher was in control of co-ordinating who to meet and when. Once the NHS mentoring relationships had started, four semi-structured interviews were carried out with all the mentors and mentees (except one mentor was working abroad for the last two sessions) making an overall total of 38 interviews. Each interview lasted approximately 30 minutes.

Two focus groups, organised by the Mentoring Co-ordinator, were also carried out with the mentors only to discuss the results so far and to gather any additional information. After each set of interviews and the focus group sessions, an overview report was sent back to the management team of the sponsoring organisation. This was also sent to the mentors and mentees to verify the summary and for additional comments.

### *Case Study 2*

As with the NHS pilot study, Kram's four phases of the mentoring lifecycle were used as the points for data collection over 12 months for the core Police study (CEPF) too. As before, the same assumptions were made about the shifting nature of the mentoring programme and the relationships within it, in terms of the timescales and the phases of the mentoring cycle. The same assumptions were made that in the initial first few meetings (from 0-3 months) that the rapport building would be achieved and expectations managed (initiation phase), that the action planning and some early progress would have been achieved within the first 6 months (cultivation phase), that further/longer term progress would have been achieved in the 6-9 month period as the mentee becomes more independent (separation phase) and that the relationship would be coming to closure after 12 months (redefinition phase.) Therefore, the data was collected at point 1; at the end of the initiation phase (3 month point), point 2; at the end of the cultivation phase (6 month point), point 3; at the



end of the separation phase (9 month point), and point 4; at the end of the redefinition phase (12 month point).

The researcher was not given the contact details of any mentors and mentees. The three monthly interviews and focus groups were organised on two set days, each time, by the Mentoring Co-ordinator within the L&D Department and this was co-ordinated internally through email reminders. Those who chose to come were those available on the dates given. The Mentoring Co-ordinator or 'gatekeeper' did not have any control over the attendance of both parties (it was not mandatory), and nor did the researcher. Focus groups were set up with both mentees and mentors for the core study as it was felt from the NHS pilot study, that just running a focus group for the mentors did not show the right balance of information from both parties.

In this Police study, all mentors and mentees were invited to the interviews and the focus groups and in total, 23 mentees (51.11% of all mentees) and 19 mentors (82.61% of all mentors) contributed to at least one interview and/or one focus group. Some attended more often and more regularly than others; this was mostly due to problems with availability due to differing shift work, organisational changes and location. Some who were unable to make the interviews were contacted by telephone at a time and on the set days agreed by the Mentoring Co-ordinator. Attendance rates at the interviews and the focus group meetings reduced over time. Overall 68 interviews were held (36 mentors and 32 mentees), together with two mentor focus groups and two mentee focus groups (ranging from four to eight people per group). Each interview lasted between 45-60 minutes. The focus groups lasted up to two and a half hours.

As with the NHS study, after each set of interviews and the focus group sessions, an overview report was sent back to the management team of the sponsoring organisation. This was also sent to the mentors and mentees to validate the summary and for additional comments.

### *Case Study 3*

As with the NHS pilot study and the CEPF core study, the intention was to collect data from each of Kram's four phases of the mentoring lifecycle again. However, the additional Police case study organisation (NEPF) did not have time for regular face to face interviews, was only running for a 9 month period and the organisation only wanted to co-ordinate the mentees and mentors together for focus groups at three points during the mentoring relationship. Therefore as before, assumptions were made about the shifting nature of the mentoring programme and the relationships within it, over a tighter timescale.

For the NEPF study assumptions were made that in the initial first few meetings (from 0-3 months) that rapport would have been achieved, expectations managed and that the action planning and some early progress would have been achieved too (initiation phase/cultivation phase). Within the first 3-6 month period there was an expectation that some longer term progress would have been achieved as the mentee begins to become more independent (cultivation/separation phase) and that the mentee would be becoming much more independent and the mentoring relationship coming to closure after 9 months (separation/redefinition phase.) Therefore, the mentoring lifecycle four phases were condensed over three phases: data collection point 1; at the end of the initiation phase/start of the cultivation phase (3 month point), point 2; at the end of the cultivation phase/start of the separation phase (6 month point), and point 3; at the end of the separation phase/start of the redefinition phase (9 month point).

As with the core Police study (CEPF), the researcher was not given the contact details of any mentors and mentees. The three monthly focus group sessions were organised by the Mentoring Co-ordinator within the L&D Department and this was co-ordinated internally through email reminders. Those who chose to come were those available on the dates given. As before, the Mentoring Co-ordinator did not have any control over the attendance of both parties (it was not mandatory), and nor did the researcher. Those who chose to come were those available on the dates given.

In this Police study, all mentors and mentees were invited to the focus group sessions and in total 126 mentees (84% of all mentees) and 82 mentors (65% of all mentors) gave their views across all focus groups, some more often and more regularly than others. As with the other Police case study, attendance was mostly affected by problems with availability due to differing shift work, organisational changes and location. Attendance rates at the focus group meetings reduced over time. Differently to the other two case study organisations, this Police Force ran four different mentoring cohorts, one after the other, and three focus groups were held for both mentees and mentors in each of the cohorts, a total of 12 focus groups overall. Each focus group lasted up to one and a half hours each.

Differently to the other two case studies, an overview report was not sent back to the management team of the sponsoring organisation for the NEPF but notes from each focus group were typed up and forwarded to the Mentoring Co-ordinator. As mentioned previously, focus groups were not taped and so the notes collated were only those of the researcher/facilitator free form comments and flipchart summaries.

In short for all three case study organisations, ‘cognitive access’ (Saunders et al., 2016, p. 223) was achieved over time; having regular interviews or focus groups with the mentors and mentees helped the researcher get sufficiently close to the participants, to allow for more personal, richer exchanges. This has helped to reassure that the information being requested and gathered was relevant to the research questions and ultimately leading to a better understanding of the social reality of mentoring, in their context. Gaskell (2000) suggests that 15-25 individual interviews and 6-8 focus group discussions would offer a good in-depth research approach, whereas other scholars suggest higher numbers, for instance 30-40 individual interviews is also commonly cited (Cresswell, 2007). Over the three case study organisations it is clear that large numbers of interviews and focus groups were carried out which should help to provide some confidence in the findings, discussed later.

#### **6.4 Qualitative data analysis methods and procedure.**

This section makes clear how the information gathered from the interviews and the focus groups in all three case study organisations was sorted, categorised and analysed, using the NVIVO software. In this study only qualitative methods were used to gather qualitative data, and no quantitative data has been obtained. Hence this section is concerned only with the qualitative data analysis theory and issues.

A tape recorder was introduced to the NHS interviewees halfway through the study; this was delayed due to early anxieties by the Mentoring Co-ordinator in relation to confidentiality and the wish to allow time for the relationship between interviewee and interviewer to develop. A tape recorder was used for all of the interviews in the first Police study (CEPF); no-one objected to using the tape recorder once requested in the NHS and CEPF context. The NEPF organisation did not wish their focus groups to be recorded. There were some technical issues when recording some of the interviews, especially telephone conversations and distracting, noisy backgrounds. All the taped recordings were transcribed externally to provide an unbiased record of the conversations and to produce more accurate, reliable information for analysis. Once the transcribed notes were returned, time was taken to re-listen and double-check the transcriber's understanding of the responses in order to reduce subjectivity and ensure an accurate account was maintained. These were also shared with the participants on email to ensure they were a true reflection of the interviews held. Tape recording the CEPF focus groups gave an added advantage to the researcher as when acting as the focus group facilitator, it was easier to concentrate more on stimulating the conversations than accurate note taking. Having all the information transcribed meant that full, accurate and specific quotations were then able to be used for analysis later.

The transcribed information was considered 'raw data' and was saved into an NVIVO 8 software package and then updated, when the software was upgraded, into NVIVO 9, on an ongoing basis.

The researcher waited for all the NHS information to be transcribed before inputting into the NVIVO database but for the Police studies, input this as and when the transcripts came back. This allowed for the researcher to see what meaning was coming through the data and to spot any emerging themes.

Content analysis (Flick, 2009; Easterby-Smith, 2012) is a typical approach to analysing qualitative information. It was used in this research study to help disentangle the substantive statements, meanings and words against the theoretical models in relation to the categories for investigation; learning outcomes and moderators. Content analysis involves three aspects; 'common classes', 'special classes' and 'theoretical classes' (Gray, 2014, p. 608). Within NVIVO, the information was carefully sorted by mentee and mentor (common classes) and then placed in either the learning outcome 'tree node' or the moderating factors 'tree node' (special classes). Then using the information within these nodes, the various quotations or 'units of data' were coded against pre-existing categories in relation to learning outcomes and moderating factors (theoretical classes). Learning outcome responses were coded against the four theoretical learning domains proposed by Wanberg et al. (2003) and used by Hezlett (2005), namely cognitive, skill-based, affective-related and social networks. Moderating factors were coded against Hegstad and Wentling's (2005) facilitating and hindering moderators. These categories from existing theory, helped to get the analysis started by providing an initial structured, analytical framework and helped to maintain objectivity during the analysis stage.

There are some criticisms of taking the categories for analysis from existing theory with Saunders et al. (2016) suggesting that readers (and researchers) may attach their own meaning to the findings, based on their prior knowledge of the theory used and/or may not fully understand the meaning that is now being placed on such terms. However, for this doctoral research, categorising the information gathered was also an interactive process. Doing the NHS case study interviews first allowed skills to be developed with the software and also categories to be tested and developed. This meant that the categories for the Police case study were expanded and also clearer to start with. This also meant that some retrospective re-categorising needed to occur for the NHS case

study. This concurs with an explanation building approach, whereby a theoretical proposition (conceptual framework) is tested in an iterative manner (Saunders et al., 2016), for example through an initial case study, then amendments are made in the light of these findings, then a further round of data collection is undertaken in a second case study and the theoretical proposition is revised and developed in light of these findings. This demonstrates that this research was guided by the theoretical propositions that were discussed at the beginning and included in Appendix I, but were not restricted by them.

Any learning outcome or moderating information that did not fit into the various pre-existing categories was coded as ‘free nodes’ and were then revisited to look for patterns and volume of comments in similar areas, in order to decide if additional categories should be added. Once all the information was coded into the various sub-categories, the quotations in each section (mentors' learning outcomes in relation to cognitive learning) were then reviewed to ensure that they were in the correct place and amendments between ‘nodes’ were made. This showed that the coding was an ongoing iterative process (Gray, 2014). NVIVO automatically displayed which phase the various quotations related to (as this was input on the raw data earlier) which then helped to plot the volume of responses and changes over time within learning outcomes and moderating factors.

Using NVIVO helped to reduce and rearrange the data into a more manageable and comprehensive form (Saunders et al., 2016). There have been various criticisms in relation to using computer-aided qualitative data analysis software (CAQDAS), in terms of it being highly time consuming, difficulty finding the right fit and that there is a tendency to ‘word crunch’ and not truly explore the meaning of the data (Fisher, 2004; Maylor & Blackmon, 2005.) It seems that no one software package is able to do everything a researcher needs it to do and there is no industry leader (Bryman & Bell, 2015), but after careful consideration NVIVO seemed to be the obvious choice to aid this analysis, as there was training available, immediate University access and flexibility with setting up and changing the categories over time. As for the issue with ‘word crunching,’ some of the data has been quantitatively displayed or ‘cross dressed’ (Easterby-Smith et al., 2012, p. 62) and this has been helpful in unearthing themes leading to further deeper analysis and investigation.

Whilst waiting for NVIVO training, initially the information for the NHS study was categorised manually to allow for a quick summary to be given back to the sponsor organisation. Once the NVIVO 8 package was used, it was helpful to review the initial manual check in parallel with the computer version, to ensure that the results were the same. As familiarisation and experience was gained with NVIVO, information was rearranged and categories were expanded and subdivided to ensure the correct meaning was derived from the information.

Once the categories were identified through content analysis, the information was then summarised and paraphrased and less relevant information discarded. The key information which represented the essence of the various sub-categories was identified, and finally the key themes were grouped from within the various categories to check for frequency of themes (Flick, 2006; Gray, 2014).

### **6.5 Ensuring the quality of the findings.**

In this section, the largely quantitative terms of reliability and validity have been applied to this qualitative case study research, with reference to the alternative criteria by Lincoln and Guba (1985) throughout as well: dependability, confirmability, trustworthiness (in the reliability section) and credibility, transferability, authenticity and plausibility (in the validity section).

Reliability is concerned with the extent to which the findings can be replicated such that similar insights would have been obtained by different people on different occasions (Easterby-Smith et al., 2002; Silverman, 2013). Lincoln and Guba (1985) discuss dependability as an alternative qualitative focus, instead of reliability (as this can be seen as a scientific, positivist term), questioning whether the findings are likely to apply at other times. Several steps were taken to ensure the dependability of the research design and data collection (Lincoln & Guba, 1985; Eisenhardt, 1989). Using the same researcher, the same research methods and having the same research questions throughout all case studies would have helped to ensure dependability in the

results as much as possible. Also, the research questions have been tested between multiple cases, suggesting that there are similar, replicated themes between them.

Within the NHS context, there was a threat of ‘participant error’ (Robson, 2011) as meetings were arranged with mentees and mentors in the middle of their busy schedules. It may have been that some of their perceptions were affected by the pressure of their day or the time given to for meetings. However, the meetings were mostly held away from their offices, with plenty of time for a free-flowing conversation and mentors or mentees never seemed to be in a hurry to leave. Also, within all three case studies, there may have been some disparity about what the participants believed to be true (their perceptions) and what is actually true for them (the reality) meaning that perhaps what they are saying is not actually what they do (Gillham, 2001). This may not have been a conscious way of behaving but could lead to contradictory results and a less straightforward/triangulated picture.

Within the Police context there was an increased threat of ‘participant bias’ or ‘response bias.’ This was because it was suggested in the focus group that some may have volunteered to be part of the mentoring programme in order to ingratiate themselves with senior management, and they therefore may have been saying what they thought the management may have wanted to hear. The interviews were also carried out for the NHS and CEPF study in times of organisational change. Consequently, again people may have been concerned about job security and so reduced any negative feedback for fear of this getting back to their managers or perhaps only offered a partial picture of what was really going on in order to avoid further intrusion into more sensitive areas (Saunders et al., 2016).

Reflexivity is concerned with self-reflection and self-examination in relation to one’s own attitudes and beliefs, the interactions with those who took part and the reactions to the data gathered within the research (Saunders et al., 2016). In short, it is important to reflect critically on oneself as a researcher (Denzin & Lincoln, 2003) both in the moment and afterwards (Bryman & Bell, 2011). There was a conscious awareness by the researcher of their involvement as both the researcher and



the designer/deliverer of the mentoring training within the CEPF and the NEPF cases and although this may have helped to more easily develop the rapport with the mentees/mentors in the interviews this may have influenced their willingness to respond and the content of their responses. For instance, perhaps there was an overly positive bias being given by the mentors as they may not have wanted to discuss anything too negative for fear of upsetting the researcher or fear of suggesting that they were not a good mentor, after receiving their training.

This could also have influenced the threat of ‘observer error’ and ‘observer bias.’ Although the research was carried out by one person and the same semi-structured questions (although altered slightly after the NHS study) were asked to all mentors and mentees each time, the researcher (as well as being the mentor trainer) is a supporter of mentoring too. The researcher was conscious of possible ‘interviewer bias’ and imposing their own positive frame of reference on the interviewees, in terms of eliciting the answers, recording the information and analysing it. This in turn could create an undesirable colouring of the material gathered (Yin, 2014.) It was important for the researcher to be authentic (Farquhar, 2012) about the research experience and to abandon their own biases and assumptions, to remain as objective as possible. Lincoln and Guba (1985) discuss this as trustworthiness and confirmability, questioning whether the researcher has allowed their values to intrude to a high degree. Being sensitive to the existence of potential bias when asking questions (Yin, 2014), taping the discussions and then cross-checking the notes taken with the transcribed versions helped to ensure that a more accurate account and record was provided (Denzin & Lincoln, 2003.) After listening to the focus group recordings, it was surprising to see that some points had been missed when the researcher had been summarising and taking notes. As a facilitator, it can be difficult to facilitate the session, ask the key questions and keep the group on task, as well as taking all the key points down. Denzin & Lincoln, (2003) state that we cannot rely on our recollections of conversations and that recorded conversations allow us to focus on the actual details. Although the tape recordings were very helpful, there were some distortions due to background noise, particularly with canteen noise from the NHS context. But repeated listening to the recordings helped to improve the quality and accuracy of the transcriptions and also helped to uncover previously un-noted recurring themes. This helped to reduce the temptation of researcher

bias and anecdotalism, whereby the findings are not just dependent on a few chosen examples but are based on a critical investigation of all the data (Silverman, 2013). Also within the focus groups, similar questions to the interviews were used in connection with the ‘comparative method’ whereby an attempt was made to find more information to support or otherwise the information already gained, through the interviews.

Also, to test the ‘recognisable reality’ (Partlett & Hamilton, 1977) a summary of the key points that had emerged from the focus group sessions and each transcribed interview were emailed to the participants to give them an opportunity to check for inconsistencies in the information too. This ‘respondent validation’ (Silverman, 2013) allowed at least four mentors to reply with some additional thoughts.

Maylor and Blackmon (2005) suggest that participant viewpoints can be influenced by many other factors too: the reliability of the interviewee, concerns about confidentiality, interviewees being unsure themselves or being prepared to have a different viewpoint depending on who they are talking to and influencing other factors and they recommend that good listening and questioning skills plus a ‘small dose of cynicism’ are useful here (p. 234).

In all case study organisations, confidentiality was re-iterated at all times and the researcher is a trained and competent interviewer and facilitator. It was hoped that meeting the participants quite regularly over time and in doing so becoming more familiar with their social context and the research setting, that rapport and acceptance was built up by both parties (Saunders et al., 2016). It is hoped that through this trust was developed, and so any potential bias would have been reduced or eliminated over time.

Validity is concerned with how accurately the research has been carried out, for instance that the results really demonstrate what they should be demonstrating (Maylor & Blackmon, 2005).

Researchers discuss the importance of construct validity, internal and external validity (Farquhar, 2012). Although construct validity assumes an objective reality, a positivist stance (Farquhar,

2012), there are two ways to ensure construct validity in case study research; a clear chain of evidence from start to finish and through triangulation. A clear chain of evidence will be demonstrated throughout this research, showing how and when the interviews and the focus groups have been carried out systematically over time for all their case study organisations.

Using multi-methods allows triangulation to be achieved. Triangulation is the use of two or more methods of data collection ‘in the study of some aspect of human behaviour’ (Lin, 1976). Exclusive reliance on one method of gathering data may lead to bias and distortion of the results, whereas multiple sources allow the development of converging lines of inquiry (Yin, 2014) and they can to some extent cross-validate each other (Farquhar, 2012). And by doing so, evidence can be corroborated (Creswell, 2007.) For both the NHS and the CEPF case studies, interviews and focus groups were used to validate the data gathered (Saunders et al., 2016), to help reduce any skew in the results and to ensure greater confidence and credibility in the conclusions drawn. It was disappointing that the NEPF did not allow more than one method to be used. But the fact that the CEPF and the NEPF case studies were both set within a Police context, meant that the researcher was able to look at the same phenomenon from several perspectives which helped to strengthen and triangulate the conclusions further.

Patton (2002) discusses four types of triangulation: data triangulation, investigator triangulation, theory triangulation and methodological triangulation. This study covers three of the four aspects, with at least two different data sources, mentees and mentors, across three different organisations (data triangulation), identification and evaluation of different perspectives within the data (theory triangulation), and two different methods were used (methodological triangulation.) The same researcher was used within all three case study organisations and so investigator triangulation was not achieved.

The purpose of internal validity is to demonstrate that there has been a critical investigation of the data, especially where causal relationships between variables have been discussed. Lincoln and Guba (1985) discuss this from a qualitative perspective as credibility in terms of how believable the

findings are. As information was gathered over time through two different groups of participants (mentees and mentors), again mostly through two different methods, and has been checked/double-checked over time too, it would be fair to suggest that the results are as credible and as believable as possible. Lincoln and Guba (1985) also discuss authenticity, in relation to ensuring a fair sample and ensuring the research results help others to arrive at a better understanding (ontological authenticity) and to appreciate different perspectives (educative authenticity) and as such has been an impetus for them to make changes (catalytic authenticity) and empowered them to engage in action (tactical authenticity.) This research has sought to do just this.

External validity, also known as generalisability, considers whether these findings may be applicable to other mentoring programmes in other organisations. This is a huge criticism in relation to both qualitative and case study research, as it is considered to be a core component to the natural scientific method (positivist research) and not interpretivist studies (Thomas, 2012). However, Stake (1978) suggested that although it was widely accepted that case studies were not a suitable base for generalisation, he argued that ‘naturalistic generalization’, knowing how to behave as a result of experience, is ‘both intuitive and empirical, and not idiotic’ (p. 6). Simons (1996) agreed that case studies generate unique and universal understandings. She states that ‘by studying the uniqueness of the particular, we come to understand the universal’ (p. 231). She discusses the paradox of case studies and declares that living with paradox is crucial to our understanding.

Yin (2014) sometime later still reflected that external validity has been a major barrier to doing case study research. Lincoln and Guba (1985) discuss transferability as an alternative to generalisability and suggest that the thick description offered by case study researchers provides others with information to make their judgements about the possible transferability of what they have found. It is not the intention of this research to produce law-like generalisations for all mentoring programmes and all organisations, as may be expected within a positivist type approach. The purpose and contribution of this interpretive study is concerned with revealing what is going on and how it is going on in the contexts explored, and to make some suggestions towards building

on the current theory that can be transferred and tested in subsequent research studies, and alternative contexts.

Although it is felt that triangulation and respondent validation were achieved during this research, Silverman (2013) describes these as fallible paths to validity. He recommends five interrelated ways of analysing qualitative data, with a view to creating more valid findings: the refutability principle, the constant comparative method, comprehensive data treatment, deviant case analysis and using appropriate tabulations.

The refutability principle seeks to refute assumed relationships between phenomena. It was felt this was done in the NHS and the Police case study through verifying the information gained through the interviews during the focus groups. At these focus groups, some of the interviewees were there but also additional mentors and mentees were there too. This helped to ensure from those who had been involved in the interviews, that the information was fed back correctly and that newer members to the group could add to or dispute the information too. Ideally, this could have been tested further through additional focus groups and/or additional follow up interviews with more participants and/or sometime after the mentoring relationships had finished. However, over time access opportunities became restricted, for instance in the CEPF study, the Mentoring Co-ordinator had left for maternity leave by then and the organisational changes were becoming an obstacle in relation to continued access.

The constant comparative method is where there is an attempt to find another case through which to test the findings and this was achieved through comparing and contrasting the NHS and the two Police case studies. Although the three case studies were looking at the same phenomena, the NHS case study was able to look at a small number of the same mentoring dyads over time, but the Police studies were aimed at a larger cross-section of mentors and mentees, who were not necessarily in the same dyads. It was not possible in the Police to follow the same dyads over time, due to mentors'/mentees' work constraints and the larger numbers involved. Ideally, it would have been more consistent to follow specific dyads within the Police case study, as in the NHS but

practicalities and logistics did not allow this to happen. However, with a larger population of mentors and mentees from the Police forces, plenty of feedback was able to be gained from the two different sides of the dyads, to either support or otherwise the NHS results.

Comprehensive data treatment (Silverman, 2013) was carried out. Where possible every piece of interview and focus group data was transcribed and all the key information was coded and categorised within NVIVO. However, there was some information that did not readily fit into the categories for analysis and did not seem relevant to the research questions, so this was not analysed further. This has implications for subjectivity and subsequent interpretation of the data, as it could be that by summarising and coding the information too readily into categories against the research questions, some key data could have been missed or could have been misinterpreted.

‘Deviant case analysis’ actively seeks out and addresses anomalies in the data; not all the information through triangulation agreed with itself or converged in this study; the divergent cases or data have been explored in more detail further throughout the findings section. There have also been some unsuccessful mentoring relationships but due to the confidentiality of the mentoring relationships and non-attendance of those in less successful mentoring relationships, there was little opportunity to examine these cases further into the ‘deviant cases’ outside of the interview and focus group discussions. This could lead to bias too, as those unwilling to take part or meet regularly, have not been able to share their valuable feedback and perceptions. From the focus groups, it was clear that there had been some unsuccessful formal mentoring relationships and this was discussed and explored as much as possible in that forum. But assumptions were made that there were others who were not willing to share these experiences, perhaps due to time pressures or organisational constraints. Clarity and further evaluation here would have added more richness to the differing perceptions about effective and less effective mentoring relationships.

Finally, the suggestion of using appropriate tabulations offers a means to clearly show ‘the whole corpus of data’ ordinarily lost in intensive, qualitative research (Silverman, 2013). With this in mind, some data has been quantitatively displayed and discussed based on the frequency of ideas

and issues being mentioned, in an attempt to show an overview of the data and demonstrate the key recurring themes. The NVIVO software package has helped to provide transparency in relation to how the information was recorded, ordered and categorised, and helps to show trends in the information.

Although it is felt that improvements could be made for similar research to be done in the future, overall this research design was considered to be as robust, rigorous and as plausible as possible, within the limitations of the specific contexts and time scales available.

## **5.6 Ethical issues.**

This section will address the ethical issues that were considered before and during this research study which ensured no harm was directed at either the research participants or to the wider world (Farquhar, 2012).

Also, sound ethics are the essence and underpinning of good coaching and mentoring (Passmore, 2015). Throughout this research, it has been extremely important to remain sensitive to the impact of the researcher and this research on those who are approached for help, those who provide access and cooperation, and those affected by the results. Maylor and Blackmon (2005) suggest that an overriding ethical principle when researching, should be that we treat others as we wish to be treated ourselves and as a result, provide benefits to the individuals and organisations that are involved.

The senior managers from all three case study organisations were consulted about the purpose and methodological details of the research and formal ethical approval was given by them in writing through the Mentor Co-ordinators, from within the L&D Departments. Once this was

attained, ethical approval was sought and given by the University's Research Ethics Committee (see Appendix VII for the University ethical approval and ethical approval letters from all three organisations). Formal ethical approval was not needed through the NHS Trusts (Medical) Ethics Committee as it was clear through the methods chosen, that no patients were directly involved, there was no intrusion on their privacy and they were not affected by the research. Information about participant rights was fully discussed with all mentors and mentees and consent forms were signed by all parties before the research commenced.

Various ethical guides and codes of conduct have been referred to for this research: The British Sociological Association Statement of Ethical Practice (2002), the Revised Ethical Guidelines for Educational Research (BERA, 2004), the European Mentoring and Coaching Council Code of Ethics (2008), the British Psychological Society Code of Human Research Ethics (2010) and the Association of Business Schools Ethics Guide (2010).

According to these guides, all participants have the right to be informed about the aims, purpose and likely publication of findings involved in the research, the potential uses to which the data might be put, and any potential risks or consequences for participants. All participants had the right to participate or not, and those that did were clear about the parameters and the purpose. All participants freely gave their consent based on a full and fair explanation of the study; this is known as voluntary informed consent (Cohen et al., 2011). These guidelines also suggest that the anonymity and privacy of those who participate should be respected (please see example Participant Information Sheet and Consent Form in Appendix VIII). Ethical guidelines suggest that research participants should fully understand how far they will be afforded anonymity and confidentiality and be aware that they can reject the use of data-gathering devices such as tape recorders. Before the start of the interviews and the focus group discussions for this study, the use of the tape recorder was discussed and everyone consented for this to be used.



Personal information concerning research participants has been kept confidentially and anonymised through the removal of identifiers and appropriate measures were taken to store research data in a secure manner. Any references to names, initials and jobs were removed in the notes that were typed up and shared, to ensure no-one could be identified by a third party. Also, permission was sought from all involved to share a summary of the information with interested parties, through external publications.

It was also important to recognise the ethical principles in relation to the researcher being competent and aware of what is involved in conducting research, so that the research is conducted rigorously and within the correct procedures, that information is reported accurately and the integrity and autonomy of the research is maintained (Cohen et al., 2011). The researcher is a member of The European Mentoring and Coaching Council (EMCC), and as such abides by the EMCC Ethical Code & Competency Framework (2003) and the AC (Association for Coaching) and EMCC Global Code of Ethics (2016) in terms of working with clients, professional conduct and excellent practice. These standards require those involved in any aspect of coaching and mentoring to be committed to functioning from a position of dignity, autonomy and personal responsibility and conducting themselves in a way which respects diversity and promotes equal opportunities (EMCC Ethical Code, 2003).

In short, this research was carried out within a combination of ethical guidelines and professionalism. Sensitivity, integrity and confidentiality were maintained throughout.

## **6.7 Summary of chapter.**

In conclusion, this study takes a critical realist position and an interpretivist theoretical perspective investigating three public sector case studies, where the sample sizes were varied but discrete. Key themes, in relation to the overall research questions, were explored through semi-structured

interviews and focus groups for two of the cases (NHS and CEPF) and through focus groups only for the final case study (NEPF). Most discussions were tape recorded which aided all details to be cross-checked and captured accurately and the whole research process was managed robustly, professionally and ethically.

Yin (2014) discusses the four key principles that underpin good quality social science research: attending to all the evidence, addressing all major rival interpretations, addressing the most significant aspects of the case study and applying prior, expert knowledge. The next four findings chapters (in section IV) apply these key principles to the key findings in relation to the four central overarching strategic questions which guided this doctoral study.

## SECTION IV – FINDINGS

### Findings

This section discusses the results of addressing the four key research questions detailed in Chapter 1: (i) *What do mentees and mentors perceive they are learning during their formal mentoring relationships?*, (ii) *How does the learning change over time for both parties?*, (iii) *What are the factors that moderate mentee and mentor learning during their formal mentoring relationships?* and (iv) *How do these moderating factors change over time for both parties?*

The findings that were deduced from analysing and interpreting the data collected from each case study organisation will be discussed in turn, starting with the small scale NHS pilot study [chapter 7], then the core study of the Central England Police force (CEPF) [chapter 8] and followed by the most recent additional study of the North England Police force (NEPF) organisation [chapter 9].

This section will conclude by presenting the results of the subsequent multiple cross-case comparative analysis showing similarity and difference between the three case study organisations, and finishes with an overall summary of the results [chapter 10].

## **Chapter 7 - Results of the NHS Healthcare Trust (NHS) Pilot Study**

As a reminder, the first case study organisation was an NHS Healthcare Trust (NHS) who had recently launched a formal mentoring programme to support both clinical and non-clinical members of staff in their part-time study for a postgraduate management qualification. Mentors were experienced managers and most had been previous students, doing the same qualification. This mentoring pilot started with six dyads (one pair did not carry on their mentoring relationship after a short period of time) so only five dyads were involved in the research throughout. Dyads were made up of three female pairs, one male pair and one female mentee and one male mentor pair. A very brief summary about NHS mentees and mentors can be seen in Appendix II.

Once the mentoring had started, four semi-structured interviews were carried out with each mentor and mentee (except one mentor was working abroad so was not available for the last two interviews) making an overall total of 38 interviews. As previously explained in the methodology section, these 30 minute semi-structured interviews were carried out over a 12-month period (2010) at four points to coincide roughly with the four phases of the mentoring lifecycle (Kram, 1988). For instance, interview 1; at the end of the initiation phase (3 month point), interview 2; at the end of the cultivation phase (6 month point), interview 3; at the end of the separation phase (9 month point), and interview 4; at the end of the redefinition phase (12 month point). 2 Focus groups were also carried out with mentors only (March 2010/3 month point and June 2010/6 month point) to discuss the results so far and to gather any additional information.

### **7.1 Result of addressing research question 1: *What do mentees and mentors perceive they are learning during their formal mentoring relationships within the NHS?***

The first research question was aimed at understanding what both parties perceived they were learning as a result of their NHS mentoring relationships. Findings from the mentee and mentor interviews will be displayed in this section, together with the findings from two mentor focus groups.

### ***7.1.1 Mentee and mentor interview findings.***

The content of the 38 interviews, made up of 20 mentee and 18 mentor interviews, was coded, categorised and sorted through NVIVO 8 and 9 to identify the number of responses made by each mentee and mentor that related specifically to the four theoretical learning domains proposed by Wanberg et al. (2003) and used by Hezlett (2005), namely cognitive, skill-based, affective-related and social networks.

The results of this categorisation is summarised into Table 7.1. This table shows the respective number of responses made by both NHS mentees and mentors during their interviews in relation to the four learning domains. As well as showing number of responses and percentage of the overall total responses by learning domain, the 'no. of sources' row indicates how many mentee or mentor interviews contained these responses and the percentage response rate for each learning domain overall.

This table demonstrates that although all four domains were discussed during the interviews with both mentees and mentors, the number of sources and responses varied significantly across the four learning domains.

Regarding the mentees, learning was mentioned more regularly (n=66) in the cognitive learning domain which accounts for almost half of the total mentee responses (45.21%). This domain was mentioned in all mentee interviews (100%) at least once per interview with three mentees mentioning it six times or more, in one interview. The number of responses relating to affective-related (n=37) and skill based (n=24) learning domain were mentioned by mentees approximately half as often as to cognitive learning; and examples of social networks learning were the least mentioned (n=19). Affective-related learning was mentioned in over half of the interviews (65%) but the other two domains; skill based and social networks were mentioned in less than half of the mentee interviews, suggesting these were the domains of least frequent comment.

**Table 7.1** - Categorisation of the collected NHS mentee and mentor responses against Wanberg et al.'s (2003) four learning domains

<b>Mentee/Mentor interviews</b>	<b>Sources/ Responses</b>	<b>Cognitive learning</b>	<b>Skill-based learning</b>	<b>Affective-related learning</b>	<b>Social networks learning</b>	<b>Total No. of Responses</b>
<b>Mentee interviews</b> (n=20)	No. of sources	20 (100%)	9 (45%)	13 (65%)	9 (45%)	-
	No. of responses	66 (45.21%)	24 (16.44%)	37 (25.34%)	19 (13.01%)	<b>146</b> <b>(53.28%)</b>
<b>Mentor interviews</b> (n=18)	No. of sources	14 (77.78%)	13 (72.22%)	15 (83.33%)	8 (44.44%)	-
	No. of responses	36 (28.13%)	37 (28.90%)	42 (32.81%)	13 (10.16%)	<b>128</b> <b>(46.72%)</b>
<b>Total mentee and mentor interviews</b> (n=38)	Total No. of responses	102	61	79	32	<b>274</b>

For mentors, learning was mentioned most regularly (n=42) in the affective-related learning domain with 32.81% of the total responses made, followed closely by 28.90% (37 of 128) of the responses and 28.13% (36 of 128) relating to the skill-based and cognitive domains of learning respectively. Just 10.16% (13 of 128) of the responses made by mentors were examples of social network learning. There were no learning domains commented on within all mentor interviews (as with mentees and cognitive learning) but the majority of mentor interviews (by a small margin; 83.33%) had affective-related responses included.

As can be seen in Table 7.1, the mentors' responses were more evenly spread between the first three learning domains whereas the mentees' responses tended to focus on cognitive learning much more than on the other types of learning. The combined total number of responses made by the mentees' and mentors' suggest that most of the learning that takes place within these dyadic formal mentoring relationships is in the cognitive domain, and the least learning is in the social networks domain.

Appendix IX shows a selection of NHS mentee and mentor quotations in relation to all four learning domains, across all four sets of interviews. Key themes for mentees are illustrated: cognitive learning in relation to practical study tips and the wider organisation: skill-based in relation to reflection, organisational, listening, and work-life balance skills: affective-related learning in relation to improved confidence, focus, self-awareness and positivity: social networks in relation to being encouraged to talk to others. Key themes for mentors are also illustrated: cognitive learning in relation to increased clarity about the mentees studies, wider insight into the organisation and learning about mentoring: skill-based in relation to questioning, listening, assertiveness and mentoring skills: affective-related learning in relation improved confidence, positivity and patience with others: social networks in relation to future connections.

Although some learning domains were more frequently mentioned than others, these quotations confirm that both parties involved had learnt across the four domains.

### ***7.1.2 Mentor focus group findings.***

Two mentor focus groups were held to share the mentor feedback so far and to gather any additional views about their learning; one after the first interviews/initiation phase and the other after the second interviews/cultivation phase. These were organised by the Mentoring Scheme Co-ordinator as part of their on-going evaluation of their mentoring programme. All five mentors attended the first focus group and three attended the second one. Notes were not taken to show the specific quotes by respondents but additional thoughts were shared about their learning and summarised onto flipcharts. Mentee focus groups were not held within this NHS study. Table 7.2 summarises the key points that were made by mentors in both focus groups against the aforementioned four domains of their learning. This Table clearly confirms what the mentors had said in their interviews.

**Table 7.2** - Additional supporting information from NHS mentors in relation to their learning

<b>Focus group/phase Domains of learning</b>	<b>1<sup>st</sup> mentor focus group (initiation phase)</b>	<b>2<sup>nd</sup> mentor focus group (cultivation phase)</b>
Cognitive learning	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Insights into mentee issues</li> <li>• Insights into other parts of organisation</li> <li>• New University processes</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Increased knowledge of what I can do</li> <li>• At the start, I wasn't sure what the role was, now clearer</li> </ul>
Skill-based learning	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• How to ask questions that unlock different thinking</li> <li>• Asking the right questions</li> <li>• Developing rusty questioning skills</li> <li>• When to stop talking and when to carry on</li> <li>• Learnt to structure advice in my head first (as aware of organisational sensitivities)</li> <li>• Bit more patience</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Good test of mentoring skills as not always know the subject area</li> <li>• Improved re asking questions – now have a tool kit for communication and questioning skills</li> </ul>
Affective-related learning	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Boost to own confidence when get positive feedback from mentee</li> <li>• Asking myself questions; why do I do it like that?</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Increased self confidence</li> <li>• Gaining increased assertiveness which has improved all aspects of life</li> <li>• Feel that have an increased self-belief that making a difference</li> <li>• Feels good to help others</li> </ul>
Social networks	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• No responses</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• No responses</li> </ul>

This Table 7.2 shows that mentors confirmed they had gained an increased knowledge about their mentees, the organisation and their own mentoring skills (cognitive learning) and they had developed their questioning skills, communication skills and patience (skill-based learning), and by doing so have boosted their confidence to mentor and beyond (affective-related learning). All these aspects are mentioned by the mentors across the various interviews, so these two mentor focus groups have supported the interview findings and helped to triangulate these results further. Interestingly, nothing was mentioned in these two focus groups directly about social networks, yet some mentors mentioned this in their interviews, although this was the domain of least learning overall. Similarly, nothing is mentioned in the focus groups about mentors developing their listening skills, yet this is mentioned often by mentors in their interviews.



## **7.2 Result of addressing research question 2: *How does the learning change over time for both parties, within the NHS?***

The second research question was aimed at understanding how the learning for both parties within the NHS mentoring relationships had changed over time. Findings from the mentee and mentor interviews will be displayed in this next section.

### **7.2.1 *Learning over the different phases of the mentoring cycle.***

As this was a planned longitudinal study, the four sets of researcher interviews were deliberately set up to coincide roughly with the four phases of the mentoring lifecycle (Kram, 1988). For instance, interview 1; at the end of the initiation phase (3 month point), interview 2; at the end of the cultivation phase (6 month point), interview 3; at the end of the separation phase (9 month point), interview 4; at the end of the redefinition phase (12 month point). Therefore, the response rates by mentees and mentors from their 38 interviews in relation to the four learning domains across these four mentoring lifecycle phases together are displayed in Table 7.3. The percentage response rate has been added too, to show how often these domains had been mentioned by the two parties.

This Table 7.3 shows that throughout the beginning, middle and end phases of the formal mentoring programme, all four learning domains were mentioned by both mentors and mentees, but the frequency of response varied across the different phases of the mentoring lifecycle.

This table shows that for mentees, the total responses from all four learning domains increased as the mentoring relationship developed over time, from 18 responses (12.33% of all their responses) in the initiation phase/interview 1 to 64 responses in the redefinition phase/interview 4 (43.84% of all their responses).

**Table 7.3** - Categorisation of the collected NHS mentee/mentor responses on the four learning domains against Kram's (1988) four mentoring phases

Mentee/ Mentor	Phases/ Learning domains	Initiation/ Interview 1	Cultivation/ Interview 2	Separation/ Interview 3	Redefinition/ Interview 4	Total No. of Responses
<b>Mentees</b>	Cognitive	8 12.12%	18 27.27%	16 24.24%	24 36.37%	66
	Skill-based	4 16.67%	1 4.16%	4 16.67%	15 62.50%	24
	Affective-related	4 10.81%	5 13.51%	9 24.33%	19 51.35%	37
	Social networks	2 10.53%	3 15.79%	8 42.11%	6 31.57%	19
	<b>Total mentee responses:</b>	<b>18 (12.33%)</b>	<b>27 (18.49%)</b>	<b>37 (25.34%)</b>	<b>64 (43.84%)</b>	<b>146</b>
<b>Mentors</b>	Cognitive	10 27.78%	11 30.56%	6 16.66%	9 25%	36
	Skill-based	7 18.92%	7 18.92%	11 29.73%	12 32.43%	37
	Affective-related	8 19.05%	11 26.19%	13 30.95%	10 23.81%	42
	Social networks	1 7.69%	3 23.08%	3 23.08%	6 46.15%	13
	<b>Total mentor responses:</b>	<b>26 (20.31%)</b>	<b>32 (25%)</b>	<b>33 (25.78%)</b>	<b>37 (28.91%)</b>	<b>128</b>
<b>Overall total</b>	<b>Mentees/mentors responses together</b>	<b>44 (16.06%)</b>	<b>59 (21.53%)</b>	<b>70 (25.55%)</b>	<b>101 (36.86%)</b>	<b>274</b>

The affective-related domain is the only domain where mentees responses increased phase by phase over time, with the other learning domains fluctuating between the four interviews but remaining highest in the final phases, except for social networks, which was highest in the separation phase/interview 3. Social networks had the lowest response rate (19) throughout and cognitive had the highest (66), as confirmed in Table 7.1 earlier. Cognitive learning dominated the learning domain discussion in all four phases/interviews, with the highest response rate of all four learning domains in each phase.

For mentors, the total responses from all four learning domains increased slowly but steadily as the mentoring relationship developed over time, from 26 responses (20.31% of all their responses) in the initiation phase/interview 1 to 37 responses (28.91% of all their responses) in the redefinition phase/interview 4. For mentors, the frequency of responses increased over time slowly for skill-based learning and social networks but fluctuated for cognitive and affective-related learning. In

fact for both cognitive and affective-related domains, the majority of responses were either in interview 1 and 2 (cognitive) and interview 2 and 3 (affective-related.) Differently to mentees, cognitive and affective-related responses by mentors reduced over time but similarly to mentees, social networks remained at a low level throughout (13 responses in total). Skill based learning seemed to follow a similar pattern for mentees and mentors showing an increase at the end phase/interview 4.

In short, Table 7.3 shows that for both parties their total number of responses in relation to their learning increased over time from 44 responses (16.06% of all responses) in the first phase to 101 responses in the final phase (36.86% of all responses), for mentees and mentors together. Mentees responses tripled over time from first to final phase (from 18 to 64), yet mentors responses only increased by 11 over the four phases (from 26 to 37).

It is clear from Table 7.3 that mentees and mentors both perceived that their learning increased from phase to phase, overall (with total mentee and mentor responses). In an attempt to show how the content of mentees and mentors responses changed over time too, Appendix X shows the key responses made by both mentees and mentors about their learning, within each phase. These tables were used as the basis for the three monthly reports which were sent back to the senior managers who were sponsoring the NHS mentoring pilot. Not all responses were listed here but the majority of themes and some direct quotes are listed here which are helpful to demonstrate a change of emphasis in the words used by mentees and mentors over time.

## **Mentees**

For mentees, Appendix XI confirms that throughout the beginning, middle and end phases of the mentoring lifecycle, the knowledge gained (cognitive domain) was mostly in relation to the practical study related areas of referencing, report writing, business planning, computing and finding resources, and not perhaps as expected in terms of finding out more about the mentors experiences and the wider organisation. Although one mentee mentioned later on that he/she is

learning how to deal with staff issues and another how to run a meeting, both of which suggest some job-related learning as well as the majority of study related learning.

This Appendix IX shows that skill-based responses in the early two interviews discussed IT, presentation and referencing skills but although some of these were repeated in interview 3, generally interview 3 and 4 responses covered more generic skills that were relevant to the job for instance organisational skills, reflective skills and assertiveness. It seemed that less study related skills were mentioned as the interviews and phases progressed.

Affective-related responses covered confidence throughout all four interviews ranging from 'improved confidence' (interview 1), to 'increased confidence' (interview 2), 'boosting self-esteem' (interview 3) and 'more confidence' (interview 4). Interview 1 had responses about the volume of work and concerns about work-life balance, followed by the need for a better focus (interview 2) but then no responses were made about work-life balance and the amount of work in interview 3 and 4 – perhaps as the earlier skills development in relation to organisation skills had helped to address this and/or the support from the mentor had helped to allay these earlier fears? Social network responses included new contacts from the mentor, new contacts from the course and other external support (mentor/family). Support from outside the course for instance; external mentors, were not mentioned until interview 3.

### **Mentors**

Appendix X shows that mentors responses in the cognitive domain started by discussing clarity about the mentees issues and the University connection (interview 1) but later, mentioned new learning about their role as a mentor (interview 2 and 3) and mostly later, started to mention the differing perspectives that they have gained through their mentees, into other areas of the business. As can be seen in this table, mentors mentioned learning about their mentoring role and what is expected of them throughout all four interviews.

In relation to skill-based learning, questioning skills were mentioned by mentors in the first two interviews but listening skills were mentioned predominantly in the final two interviews. As can be seen in Appendix X, mentors questioning themselves came in the final two interviews as well, in terms of self-awareness and changing the way they approached mentoring. As with mentees, confidence was mentioned in all four phases in relation to the affective-related domain; ‘boost in confidence’ (interview 1), ‘raised confidence’ (interview 2), ‘increased confidence’ (interview 3) and ‘a lot more confidence’ (interview 4). For mentors, this confidence early on was attributed to their confidence in acting as a mentor but later on, was more specifically about their personal confidence within their job and with their own team.

Social network responses are listed in this table too but only in relation to new connections within the workplace and not outside the workplace.

#### ***7.2.2 Perceived personal change during and at the end of the mentoring lifecycle.***

Once the NHS mentoring relationships had been running for almost 9 months, both parties were asked as part of their interview 3 (which was the end of the separation phase) and interview 4 (which was the end of the redefinition phase/end of the mentoring relationship) if they had perceived anything had changed over time for them personally. The findings are displayed in Table 7.4 and split by mentee and mentor between these two phases.

This table shows that confidence was a key theme for mentors and has been highlighted in red, together with responses in relation to friendship (highlighted in blue) to place emphasis on these two aspects, for discussion later.

**Table 7.4** - Perceived changes personally experienced by mentees and mentors over time as a result of the mentoring

<b>Mentees</b> <b>Interview 3 (separation phase)</b>	<b>Mentees</b> <b>Interview 4 (redefinition phase)</b>
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Realised had to chill out/it's only a job</li> <li>• Realised how best to tackle things/not to take things too personally</li> <li>• Possibly enjoying the job a bit more</li> <li>• <b>Less terrified before interviews as know my stuff</b></li> <li>• Looking into things a bit more/I don't just say yes, I try to think about who is affected</li> <li>• In-depth conversations about myself</li> <li>• <u>Mentor not just someone I know at work... become a very valued colleague... we've become friends</u></li> <li>• Helped to mentor my mentor; read his work and asked him questions, as my tutor would do for me. He took my advice</li> <li>• Considering bringing in a buddying/mentoring scheme into my own department</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Relationship not changed (ongoing support offered)</li> <li>• Now looking at improvements in my job</li> <li>• <b>More confident in ability to do the job</b></li> <li>• Learnt what boundaries not to cross</li> <li>• Making changes at work; communication</li> <li>• Feel more comfortable with myself</li> <li>• <b>Increased confidence levels</b></li> <li>• Better links with other departments</li> </ul>
<b>Mentors</b> <b>Interview 3 (separation phase)</b>	<b>Mentors</b> <b>Interview 4 (redefinition phase)</b>
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• 'I feel like she is a totally different person'</li> <li>• Mentee has achieved a few things</li> <li>• Mentee seems brighter and more enthusiastic</li> <li>• <b>Mentee feels more confident to me</b></li> <li>• Mentee feels like she is up for it a bit more</li> <li>• Mentee a lot more comfortable in what she is doing with her studies</li> <li>• <b>Mentee has a lot more confidence about what is going on</b></li> <li>• Mentee is a lot happier</li> <li>• <b>Mentee has the confidence to believe in what she is doing now/self confidence</b></li> <li>• <u>Mentee feels she can contact me anytime/not have to formally agree it now</u></li> <li>• Focus has moved and is becoming more effective now; focussing on bigger things</li> <li>• Mentee so positive about where she is</li> <li>• Mentee goes out of comfort zone now</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• <b>Mentee confidence levels</b></li> <li>• Improved listening skills</li> <li>• At the start, mentoring was not a key topic for me. It has opened my eyes</li> <li>• <b>Standing up for myself more (being more forceful)</b></li> <li>• <b>Using now in other parts of my job; will go and approach others/gives me more confidence to offer</b></li> <li>• Will use mentoring more</li> <li>• <u>Established informal relationship now; a sounding board for me in return</u></li> <li>• Have referred others to look for mentors since</li> <li>• Have new mentee now (I am being more formal with this one)</li> </ul>

Adapted from: Jones (2012) p. 64.

## **Mentees**

As can be seen from Table 7.4, mentees seemed to emphasise aspects in relation to the affective-related domain more, for instance not taking things too personally, enjoying the job more and feeling more comfortable with themselves. Friendship is mentioned by one mentee in interview 3 (highlighted in blue) suggesting for that mentee that a deeper, more comfortable relationship of trust had been developed over time. Confidence was mentioned in both discussions for mentees (highlighted in red) in relation to feeling less terrified and more able to do the job.

There were limited responses about increased knowledge, except for learning to chill out, how better to tackle things and which boundaries not to cross, which is interesting as cognitive learning was the most dominant learning domain over all phases for mentees, as demonstrated in Table 7.3 and mentioned by 100% of mentees interviewed (Table 7.1) but was not a dominant recognised change. There was also no change in skills mentioned for mentees, which is interesting as again in Table 7.3 this learning had increased over time. There was one response relating to social networks (better links with other departments) in the final phase.

## **Mentors**

It is interesting to note that in interview 3, in the separation phase, when mentors were asked about what they had felt had changed, they discussed the changes to mentees only with no mention of any personal changes for themselves, yet in the mentor focus groups (Table 7.2) they mentioned their own skills and affective-related learning in both final phases. However, in interview 4, in the redefinition phase, they mostly mentioned their own personal changes and improvements; they mentioned mentoring had opened their eyes, that they were now using it elsewhere and encouraging others to get involved.

Responses in relation to friendship were mentioned for mentors in both phases (blue) which suggest that a deeper, more comfortable relationship of trust had been developed over and so

suggest that the relationships may continue beyond the workplace expectations, into the future. Confidence was mentioned in both discussions for mentors (red), in fact at first glance more so than mentees, however again mentors responses in interview 3 were focussed on mentees improved self-confidence, not their own. In the final phase, mentors mentioned that due to their own increased confidence they were making changes at work, standing up for themselves and approaching others more, which in turn will create an increased ability to do the job better.

For mentors, little is mentioned about learning new skills or knowledge, except for listening skills and referring others towards mentoring; now they know what they know about mentoring. This is interesting as Appendix IX showed that mentors were recognising the skills that they are developing in the final two phases but they do not perceive these as changes, when asked directly. There were no responses relating to social networks in the final phase.

### **7.3 Result of addressing research question 3: *What are the factors that moderate mentee and mentor learning during their formal mentoring relationships within the NHS?***

The third research question was aimed at understanding what both parties perceived had moderated their learning within their NHS mentoring relationships. Findings from the mentee and mentor interviews will be displayed in this next section, together with the findings from two mentor focus groups.

#### **7.3.1 *Mentee and mentor interview findings.***

Throughout all the NHS interviews, all mentees and mentors were asked to describe the factors (if any) that they felt had been facilitating or hindering their respective mentoring relationships. These were then coded, categorised and sorted for both mentee and mentor against Hegstad and Wentling's (2005) facilitating and hindering moderators. Their 'Design/structure of process' and 'Design/development issues' factors have been merged as one, as have 'effective, ongoing



communication’ and ‘communication difficulties.’ Also, their ‘participant satisfaction and commitment’ factor has not been included, as all mentees and mentors were asked to rate their satisfaction with mentoring and this was rated between 7 to 10 out of 10, so it is assumed that those responded were satisfied. Four additional factors were added due to the volume of responses made by mentees and mentors; difference, other relationships, personal factors and similarity. Subsequently, all these responses were then divided depending on whether they were positively described (facilitating factors) or negatively described (hindering factors) and can be seen in Table 7.5.

This table shows that at least one response was made by either a mentee or a mentor that related to 16 of the 20 moderating factors, of which 12 were from Hegstad and Wentling’s original list. No responses were made by either the mentees or mentors in relation to four of Hegstad and Wentling’s moderating factors, namely: ‘Corporate Structure/size’, ‘Human Resource Challenges’, ‘Mentor Recruitment’ and ‘Participant Empowerment.’ However, responses were made by both parties in relation to the four additional factors.

As can be seen in Table 7.5, 10 of these 16 moderating factors had responses from both mentees and mentors. Generally, mentees made more responses in each of these jointly mentioned factors than mentors (except for ‘Design/structure of Process’ ‘Distance/location of pairs’, and ‘Thorough Development’). In total, mentees made over twice as many responses than mentors; in total mentees made 64 more responses than mentors. It is interesting to note too, that the majority of mentee and mentor responses were positive but that mentee responses tended to be more positive than mentors overall; with 137 out of 190 mentee responses being positive (72.10%) and 74 out of 126 mentor responses being positive (58.73%).

Also demonstrated by this Table, the majority of responses made by the mentees were about mentoring not always being seen as a ‘Management Priority,’ ‘Time Constraints,’ ‘Difference,’ ‘Other Relationships’, and ‘Similarity.’ Collectively, these accounted for 167 mentee responses (87.90% of all mentee responses) raised across 90% of all mentee interviews.

**Table 7.5** - Factors that moderated the learning within the NHS mentoring relationships

<b>Moderating factors</b> (Taken from Hegstad & Wentling, 2005 with some additional factors added)	<b>MENTEES</b> <b>No. of</b> <b>sources</b> <b>(n=20)</b>	<b>MENTEE</b> <b>S</b> <b>No. of</b> <b>responses</b>	<b>+</b>	<b>-</b>	<b>MENTORS</b> <b>No. of</b> <b>sources</b> <b>(n=18)</b>	<b>MENTOR</b> <b>S</b> <b>No. of</b> <b>responses</b>	<b>+</b>	<b>-</b>	<b>TOTAL</b> <b>no. of</b> <b>mentee</b> <b>and</b> <b>mentor</b> <b>responses</b>
Alignment of program and organisational missions	0	0	0	0	3	3	0	3	3
Confidentiality/Trust	1	1	1	0	0	0	0	0	1
Corporate Structure/size	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
Design/structure of process	3	4	1	3	2	6	5	1	10
Distance/location of pairs	3	4	4	0	5	5	3	2	9
Human resource challenges	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
Not always a management priority	17	27	17	10	4	5	1	4	32
Effective matching strategy	0	0	0	0	2	3	1	2	3
Mentor recruitment	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
Co-ordinator/mentoring team commitment	0	0	0	0	3	5	3	2	5
Effective, ongoing communication/Communication difficulties	1	1	0	1	0	0	0	0	1
Organizational changes	5	8	2	6	5	5	1	4	13
Participant empowerment	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
Top-level management support	0	0	0	0	1	1	0	1	1
Thorough development	1	1	1	0	5	7	7	0	8
Time constraints	16	33	13	20	14	28	2	26	61
<u>Additional factors:</u>									
Difference	10	12	12	0	8	11	11	0	24
Other relationships	18	63	55	8	9	22	18	4	85
Personal factors	2	4	1	3	2	2	0	2	6
Similarity	16	32	30	2	14	23	22	1	55
<b>TOTAL (all factors):</b>	<b>-</b>	<b>190</b>	<b>137</b> (72.1%)	<b>53</b> (27.9%)	<b>-</b>	<b>126</b>	<b>74</b> (58.7%)	<b>52</b> (41.3%)	<b>316</b>

**Key:** + = facilitating/supporting responses and - = hindering/not supporting responses











Similarly, for mentors the majority of responses were clustered around four of the same; 'Time Constraints' (referred to from now on as 'Time'), 'Difference', 'Other Relationships' and 'Similarity' with all four collectively accounting for 84 mentor responses (66.67%) raised across 77.78% of all mentor interviews. 'Management Priority' (referred to from now on as 'Managers') in contrast to mentees, only elicited five mentor responses and was only referred to by just 22.22% (n=4) of the mentor research participants.

These four key moderating factors which received the highest number of responses for mentees and for mentors have been chosen for further discussion, in the next table (Table 7.6). This table shows whether the responses were predominantly positive or negative for either party with more specific detail in relation to number of responses and sources. The Table also shows the number of responses as a percentage of all the mentee and mentor responses. It also shows the number of mentee and mentor interviews in which these moderating factors were mentioned and the percentage response rates.

This table shows that mentees and mentors agreed that 'Other Relationships' together with 'Similarity' and 'Difference' were mostly facilitating factors within mentoring but that 'Time' was mostly a hindering factor. Interestingly, mentees and mentors disagreed predominantly about whether 'Managers' were facilitating or hindering. Mentees mentioned in 85% of their interviews that they were mostly facilitating but mentors suggested, in just four interviews (22.22%) that they were mostly hindering the mentoring relationships. 'Other Relationships' created the greatest number of responses for mentees overall (32.98% of the total mentee responses) but for mentors their highest response rate was in relation to 'Time' (22.22% of the total mentor responses).

The least frequent area for comment, in this table, by mentees was 'Difference' (only 12 mentee responses) and for mentors, as already mentioned, this was 'Managers' (only 5 mentor responses). The highest number of positive responses for mentees were in the 'Other Relationships' factor (55 positive responses) but for mentors, in the 'Similarity' factor (22 positive responses).

**Table 7.6 -** The five key moderating factors within the NHS mentoring relationships, showing the extent to which they were helpful or hindering

5 key moderating factors	MENTEE No. of sources		MENTEE No. of responses		MENTEE responses mostly...	MENTOR No. of sources		MENTOR No. of responses		MENTOR responses mostly...
<b>MANAGERS</b>	17 (85%)		27 (14.14%)			4 (22.22%)		5 (3.97%)		
<b>Positive/negative Sources/Responses</b>	+	-	+	-	 helpful	+	-	+	-	 hindering
	12	8	17	10		1	3	1	4	
<b>TIME</b>	16 (80%)		33 (17.28%)			14 (77.78%)		28 (22.22%)		
<b>Positive/negative Sources/Responses</b>	+	-	+	-	 hindering	+	-	+	-	 hindering
	9	12	13	20		2	14	2	26	
<b>DIFFERENCE</b>	10 (50%)		12 (6.32%)			8 (44.44%)		11 (8.73%)		
<b>Positive/negative Sources/Responses</b>	+	-	+	-	 helpful	+	-	+	-	 helpful
	10	0	12	0		8	0	11	0	
<b>OTHER RELATIONSHIPS</b>	18 (90%)		63 (32.98%)			9 (50%)		22 (17.46%)		
<b>Positive/negative Sources/Responses</b>	+	-	+	-	 helpful	+	-	+	-	 helpful
	18	7	55	8		8	4	18	4	
<b>SIMILARITY</b>	16 (80%)		32 (16.75%)			14 (77.78%)		23 (18.25%)		
<b>Positive/negative Sources/Responses</b>	+	-	+	-	 helpful	+	-	+	-	 helpful
	16	2	30	2		14	1	22	1	

*Note: Positive and negative sources do not add up to total sources, as some respondents mentioned both positive and negative factors*

Factors with the most negative responses for mentees were ‘Time’ (20 negative responses) and this was the same factor for mentors (26 negative responses.) Overall within these five factors, the area with most differentiation between positive and negative responses came for mentees within ‘Other Relationships’ (55 positive responses to 8 negative) and ‘Time’ (two positive responses and 26 negative) for mentors.

Some quotations from both mentees and mentors relating to each of the five moderating factors in Table 7.6 are displayed and discussed in Appendix XI.

In summary, Table 7.5 together with Table 7.6 and the accompanying quotations in Appendix X clearly show that mentoring is effected both positively and negatively by factors within and outside the mentors and mentees control. Managers seem to be a key theme in terms of helping mentees and hindering mentors. Other relationships, similarity and difference seemed to be helping factors for both parties, yet time is a clear hindering factor for both. It seems clear from some of the quotations used that mentors and mentees were willing to find ways around management and time issues but had obvious personal and organisational commitments and restrictions to contend with to make mentoring work.

### ***7.3.2 Mentor focus group findings***

As previously mentioned, two mentor focus groups were held to share the mentor feedback so far and to gather any additional views about their learning and moderating factors; one after the first interviews/initiation phase and the other after the second interviews/cultivation phase. All five mentors attended the first focus group and three attended the second one. Table 7.7 summarises the key points that were made about moderating factors.

This table confirms some of what the mentors had said in their interviews about facilitating and hindering factors.

The responses in this table confirm that other relationships are helpful for mentors (colleagues, training and own mentor) but that managers may not always see mentoring as a priority. Similarity and difference were not mentioned but time pressures, interruptions and workload were mentioned in both focus groups as hindering factors. Three additional factors were mentioned; family (linked to the other relationships factor) and awareness of pending organisational changes as hindering factors, and that knowing each other beforehand had been helpful (potentially linked to the similarity or selection and matching factor.).

**Table 7.7** - Supporting information in relation to moderating factors from NHS mentor focus groups

Focus group/phase Moderating factors	1 <sup>st</sup> mentor focus group (initiation phase)	2 <sup>nd</sup> mentor focus group (cultivation phase)
Facilitating	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Mentor training</li> <li>• Having own mentor</li> <li>• Interview outside own offices</li> <li>• Helpful colleagues</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Helped that knew each other beforehand</li> <li>• Mentor training</li> </ul>
Hindering	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Workload issues (some doing more than 1 role)</li> <li>• Time pressures</li> <li>• Difficult to manage interruptions at work</li> <li>• Family at home</li> <li>• Mentoring training came after first mentoring Interview</li> <li>• Mentor training not a priority in diary</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Workload</li> <li>• Had to change a few meetings due to other work pressures</li> <li>• Mentoring is not seen as a priority by some and so it is not always easy to protect it in your diary</li> <li>• Not sure there is much emphasis within the NHS on mentoring and its value; there is a willingness from L&amp;D but it is not embedded</li> <li>• Awareness of pending organisational changes</li> </ul>

#### **7.4 Result of addressing research question 4: *How do these moderating factors change over time for both parties, within the NHS?***

The final research question was aimed at understanding how the key moderating factors for both parties within the NHS mentoring relationships had changed over time. Findings from the mentee and mentor interviews are displayed in this next table.

As previously mentioned, the four sets of researcher interviews were deliberately set up to coincide roughly with the four phases of the mentoring lifecycle (Kram, 1988). For instance interview 1; at the end of the initiation phase (3 month point), interview 2; at the end of the cultivation phase (6 month point), interview 3; at the end of the separation phase (9 month point), interview 4; at the end of the redefinition phase (12 month point). This detail and the response rates by mentee and mentor, within these four phases together with the most discussed moderating factors are displayed in Table 7.8.

This table shows that for mentees and mentors together, the cultivation phase/interview 2 and redefinition phase/interview 4 had the most responses (75 each). In fact the pattern overall of the total mentee and mentor positive and negative responses per phase/interview together, showed positive responses outweighing negative ones throughout and when broken down, it was still phase on phase predominantly positive for mentees. For mentors there was a similar pattern of predominantly positive responses overall in the first three phases/interviews, except within time, but not in the final phase/interviews where the responses were more evenly spread, helped by the predominantly negative responses within time.

For mentees, this Table 7.8 shows that their total responses increased over time from 30 responses in the initiation phase/interview 1 to 54 by the redefinition phase/interview 4. This is mostly connected to mentee responses increasing over time in the factors of managers and other relationships. Yet time, although mentioned more by mentees at the start, fluctuated and slightly reduced by the end phase.

Similarity and difference fluctuated for mentees too; similarity responses reduced in interview 3/separation phase but increased for difference in the same phase (although very small numbers for mentees in this factor.) Overall more responses are made in relation to these top five moderating factors in the final interview/redefinition phase for mentees. In terms of positive and negative changes over time for mentees, within managers and other relationships both positive and negative responses increased over time and were highest at the final interview/redefinition phase but for time more positive responses were made earlier on (in the first two interviews/phases). Negative responses on time slightly increased on the final phase. Similarity and difference had few and no negative responses respectively but for mentees the majority of positive responses were in the cultivation phase and for difference in the separation phase.

**Table 7.8** - Categorisation of the collected NHS mentee/mentor positive and negative responses on the five key moderating factors against Kram's (1988) four mentoring phases

Mentees/ Mentors	Phases/ Moderating factors	Initiation/ Interview 1		Cultivation / Interview 2		Separation / Interview 3		Redefinitio n/ Interview 4		Total No. of Responses	
<b>MENTEES</b>		4		5		6		12		27	
Positive /Negative	Managers	+	-	+	-	+	-	+	-	+	-
		4	0	3	2	3	3	7	5	17	10
	Time	10		10		5		8		33	
Positive /Negative		+	-	+	-	+	-	+	-	+	-
		5	5	5	5	1	4	2	6	13	20
	Difference	2		3		5		2		12	
Positive /Negative		+	-	+	-	+	-	+	-	+	-
		2	0	3	0	5	0	2	0	12	0
	Other relationships	6		14		20		23		63	
Positive /Negative		+	-	+	-	+	-	+	-	+	-
		5	1	13	1	17	3	20	3	55	8
	Similarity	8		10		5		9		32	
Positive /Negative		+	-	+	-	+	-	+	-	+	-
		7	1	10	0	5	0	8	1	30	2
	<b>Total mentee responses by interview</b>	<b>30</b>		<b>42</b>		<b>41</b>		<b>54</b>		<b>167</b>	
Positive /Negative	<b>Total mentee positive/negative responses</b>	+	-	+	-	+	-	+	-	+	-
		23	7	34	8	31	10	39	15	127	40
<b>MENTORS</b>		1		2		0		2		5	
Positive /Negative	Managers	+	-	+	-	+	-	+	-	+	-
		0	1	1	1	0	0	0	2	1	4
	Time	6		9		4		9		28	
Positive /Negative		+	-	+	-	+	-	+	-	+	-
		1	5	0	9	0	4	1	8	2	26
	Difference	2		4		0		5		11	
Positive /Negative		+	-	+	-	+	-	+	-	+	-
		2	0	4	0	0	0	5	0	11	0
	Other relationships	8		10		3		1		22	
Positive /Negative		+	-	+	-	+	-	+	-	+	-
		6	2	9	1	3	0	0	1	18	4
	Similarity	7		8		4		4		23	
Positive /Negative		+	-	+	-	+	-	+	-	+	-
		7	0	7	1	4	0	4	0	22	1
	<b>Total mentor responses by interview</b>	<b>25</b>		<b>33</b>		<b>11</b>		<b>21</b>		<b>90</b>	
Positive /Negative	<b>Total mentor positive/negative responses</b>	+	-	+	-	+	-	+	-	+	-
		16	9	21	12	7	4	10	11	54	36
<b>Overall totals</b>		55		75		52		75		257	
Positive /Negative	Mentees/mentors responses together	+	-	+	-	+	-	+	-	+	-
		39	16	55	20	38	14	49	26	181	76



This table 7.8 also shows that for mentors their responses overall in relation to these top five moderating factors were much less than mentees (90 responses for mentors and 167 for mentees) and that generally responses fluctuated up and down between the interviews/phases except for similarity which reduced over time and difference which increased in responses over time, for mentors. Interestingly, the cultivation phase/interview 2 held the most responses for mentors (over a third of their responses in these top five factors), specifically in relation to other relationships, time and similarity. In terms of positive and negative changes over time for mentors, within other relationships the highest positive responses were made in the cultivation phase, this was the same for similarity together with the initiation phase. For both of these areas, the positive responses reduced after these phases. For time, the highest negative responses were recorded in the cultivation phase and reduced over time. Positive responses on difference increased to the final phase as did negative responses on managers for mentors but these both had a much lower response rate.

### **7.5 Synthesis of the NHS study findings.**

These findings show that both NHS mentees and mentors are learning within all four learning domains; cognitive, skill-based, affective-related and through social networks, during their formal mentoring relationships. The scope and volume of responses varied between the two parties. For mentees, the majority of their learning was within the cognitive domain; learning practical advice for studying and for mentors within the affective-related domain; building an increased self-awareness and confidence to mentor. The least amount of learning for both parties was within social networks. Over the mentoring cycle, overall mentee and mentors responses about their learning increased from the beginning to the end phases of the mentoring relationship.

Mentees and mentors cited similar key moderating factors that were helping to facilitate their mentoring relationships; other relationships, similarity and difference but mentioned that time was the key, similar hindering factor. Mentees also mentioned that their managers were facilitating but mentors (although with very few comments) mentioned their manager had been a hindering factor. Over the mentoring cycle, mentees comments about the key moderating factors tended to be

predominantly positive and increased over time. For mentors comments seemed to increase in the cultivation phase/interview 2 phase and decrease from there. Mentors comments on moderating factors remained predominantly positive too except for comments on time.

The next chapter will work through the same four research questions and display the information from the interviews and the focus groups in the same way, for the Central England Police Force (CEPF). For this chapter, a selection of quotations from both mentees and mentors will be displayed and discussed in the main body as this is the core study.

## **Chapter 8 - Results of the Central England Police Force (CEPF) Study**

The second and core case study organisation was a Central England Police Force (CEPF) who had recently launched a formal mentoring programme to support women's progression into higher organisational levels. This mentoring scheme started with 23 trained mentors creating 45 dyads. Mentors were all senior, experienced women from at least two ranks higher than the mentees. Mentees were also only women. A very brief summary of the mentors and mentees can be seen in Appendix III, together with whether they participated in the interviews or the focus groups. In total, 23 mentees (51.11% of all mentees) and 19 mentors (82.61% of all mentors) contributed to at least one interview and/or one focus group. Some mentees and mentors came to more than one interview or focus group.

Once the CEPF formal mentoring relationships had started, four semi-structured interviews were carried out with mentors and mentees every 3-4 months, making an overall total of 68 interviews (32 mentees and 36 mentors). All mentees and mentors were invited to all interviews and these were arranged by the Mentoring Scheme Co-ordinator within the CEPF. Those who attended for interviews were those who were able to make the interview sessions and were not directly selected. As previously explained in the methodology chapter, these 45-60 minute semi-structured interviews were carried out over a 12-month period (2010/2011), at four points to coincide roughly with the four phases of the mentoring lifecycle (Kram, 1988). For instance, interview 1; at the end of the initiation phase (3 month point), interview 2; at the end of the cultivation phase (6 month point), interview 3; at the end of the separation phase (9 month point), interview 4; at the end of the redefinition phase (12 month point). 2 mentee and 2 mentor focus groups were also carried out with mentees and mentors (at the end of the separation phase/9 month point and at the end of the redefinition phase/12 month point) to discuss the results so far and to gather any additional information.

## **8.1 Result of addressing research question 1: *What do mentees and mentors perceive they are learning during their formal mentoring relationships within the CEPF?***

The first research question was aimed at understanding what both parties perceived they were learning as a result of their CEPF mentoring relationships. Findings from the mentee and mentor interviews will be displayed in this section, together with the findings from two mentee and mentor focus groups.

### ***8.1.1 Mentee and mentor interview findings.***

The content of the 68 interviews, made up of 32 mentee and 36 mentor interviews, was coded, categorised and sorted through NVIVO 9 to identify the number of responses made by each mentee and mentor that related specifically to the four theoretical learning domains proposed by Wanberg et al. (2003) and used by Hezlett (2005), namely cognitive, skills-based, affective-related and social networks.

The results of this categorisation is summarised into Table 8.1. This table shows the respective number of responses made by both CEPF mentees and mentors during their interviews in relation to the four learning domains. As well as showing number of responses and percentage of the overall total responses by learning domain, the 'no. of sources' row indicates how many mentee or mentor interviews contained these responses and the percentage response rate for each learning domain overall.

This table demonstrates that although all four domains were discussed during the interviews with both mentees and mentors, the number of sources and responses varied significantly across the four learning domains. This table shows that mentees made 66 more responses (14.74% more) than mentors overall. For the mentees, learning was mentioned more regularly (n=95) in the *affective-related* learning domain, in all but one mentee interview (96.88%) and accounted for just over a third of the total mentee responses (36.97%).

**Table 8.1** - Categorisation of the collected CEPF mentee and mentor responses against Wanberg et al.'s (2003) four learning domains

<b>Mentee/Mentor interviews</b>	<b>Sources/ Responses</b>	<b>Cognitive learning</b>	<b>Skill-based learning</b>	<b>Affective-related learning</b>	<b>Social networks learning</b>	<b>Total No. of Responses</b>
<b>Mentee interviews</b> (n=32)	No. of sources	32 (100%)	25 (78.13%)	31 (96.88%)	14 (43.75%)	-
	No. of responses	86 (33.46%)	55 (21.40%)	95 (36.97%)	21 (8.17%)	<b>257 (57.37%)</b>
<b>Mentor interviews</b> (n=36)	No. of sources	25 (69.44%)	26 (72.22%)	26 (72.22%)	9 (25%)	-
	No. of responses	55 (28.80%)	58 (30.37%)	67 (35.08%)	11 (5.75%)	<b>191 (42.63%)</b>
<b>Total mentee and mentor interviews</b> (n=68)	Total No. of responses	141	113	162	32	<b>448</b>

The cognitive domain was the next most frequently mentioned learning domain for mentees and was mentioned in 100% of mentee interviews; 33.46% of the responses (again approximately a third of the responses). The number of responses relating to *skill based* (n=55) and social networks (n=21) were mentioned much less, and although were the domains of least frequent comment, they were mentioned in 78.13% and 43.75% interviews respectively.

For mentors, learning was mentioned most regularly (n=67) in the *affective-related* learning domain too with 35.08% of the total responses made, followed closely by 30.37% (58 of 191) of the responses and 28.80% (55 of 191) relating to the *skill-based* and *cognitive* domains of learning respectively. Just 5.75% (11 of 191) of the responses made by mentors were examples of *social network* learning. There were no learning domains commented on within all mentor interviews (as with mentees and *cognitive* learning) but the majority of mentor interviews (69% plus) had *affective-related*, *skill based* and *cognitive* responses included.

As can be seen in Table 8.1, the mentors' responses were more evenly spread between the first three learning domains (ranging from 55-67) whereas the mentees' responses tended to focus on *affective-related* learning more than on the other two domains of learning (ranging from 55 to 95).

The combined total number of responses made by the mentees' and mentors' suggests that most of the learning that had taken place within these dyadic formal mentoring relationships was in the *affective-related* domain, and the least learning was in the *social networks* domain.

In the following section, a selection of CEPF mentee and mentor responses will be shared against each learning domain, starting with cognitive learning.

#### *8.1.1.1 Cognitive learning.*

##### **Mentees**

Cognitive learning was discussed in all 32 mentee interviews (100%). The key themes from the mentees responses were in relation to how mentoring had given them an increased knowledge about promotional opportunities (the process of promotion, interview techniques, learning and development opportunities/courses available etc), differing perspectives in the workplace, practical advice to help them in their job and/or increased self-awareness. Two mentees early on stated:

*“My mentor was able to offer the advice for the interview, for me that really did help. And she was able to guide me to various reading areas to consider for an interview. My mentor was able to say 'Well, consider looking at this ...' And it's true, you do need to know that”*  
(Mentee 2/Interview 1).

*“I have used my mentors specialist field to my advantage in updating my CV, adapting my interview technique, and answering interview questions effectively”*  
(Mentee 16/Interview 2).

Mentee 9 mentioned how their mentor had given them practical advice to help them get more ready for future interview opportunities:

*“Main issues we have discussed are around how I can get more development within my current role ...A big benefit is learning from my mentors experience and how she has progressed in her own career. Through her experience, she has had some interesting ideas*

*which I had not thought of myself” (Mentee 9/Interview 2).*

And Mentee 15 discussed how mentoring had given them an increased drive for knowledge both within and beyond the workplace too:

*“It's not a kick, it's a pull...I've started reading around personal development stuff... it's switched me back on to all of that, so it's been like a trigger for that, I've turned into a 24/7 learning junkie...I've become more mindful to recognise growth, and opportunities for growth, which I use in the workplace and outside” (Mentee 15/Interview 4).*

Gaining knowledge through differing perspectives was a key theme in this section too. Mentees early on expressed how they had gained increased knowledge about different parts and different areas of the Force, as illustrated below:

*“My mentor works in Counter Terrorism and that's very much kind of 'they do their thing, not quite sure what they do and where it fits in with everyday policing' ...It was a really good conversation about how what she does links in quite closely to what I do in Offender Management” (Mentee 3/Interview 1).*

*“And also for me it's quite interesting because my mentor has never worked over the western side and I've never worked over their side, so there's that new kind of perspective” (Mentee 22/Interview 1).*

In short, mentees declared that as a result of the mentoring received they had gained an increased knowledge of promotional opportunities and the wider organisation.

## **Mentors**

69.44% of mentor interviews mentioned the cognitive domain and the key themes were about mentors increasing their knowledge about different perspectives within the workplace and difference among individuals, developing their knowledge of mentoring and their own knowledge

about themselves. This mentor mentioned how they now have a wider knowledge of another part of the Force:

*“I'm getting to know a different side to the organisation as well, because I don't really know much about promotion and stuff like that...I don't know the frontline policing side - what they actually do, what it involves. She's telling me a lot about that and she's explaining things to me” (Mentor 7/Interview 2).*

whereas this mentor was learning about different working practices:

*“My department is quite a positive, pro-active department and it has given me an insight into other working practices with other departments, which perhaps haven't got the positivity and the support” (Mentor 14/Interview 3).*

and this mentor discussed the challenges and learning from working with different people:

*“My learning I think for me will never stop, because there are so many different people, the engagement, what they're looking for...It's learning not to worry if I don't have the same level of rapport with everybody I work with, because everybody is different and people express themselves in a different way”(Mentor 18/Interview 4).*

Mentor 10 discussed how mentoring had increased their insights into others too, which had in turn increased their understanding and patience with others:

*“I'm learning that people deal with things in different ways...so I'm learning that maybe I have to think of different ways...It's just giving her some more options and accepting myself, that if she doesn't take it, it's just purely because it's not for her... have become, sometimes, quite exasperated by it, but now I just think well, you know, she's asked me, but she hasn't got to do it” (Mentor 10/Interview 3).*

In short, mentors revealed that as a result of their engagement in a mentoring relationship they had gained an increased knowledge of the workplace and different people.



#### 8.1.1.2 Skill-based learning.

### **Mentees**

Skill-based learning was mentioned in 25 (78.13%) of mentee interviews and 55 responses were made. The key themes included communication, influencing and interviewing skills, skills to cope with stress/work life balance, presentation/training related skills, goal setting and reflection skills. They also mentioned that they had developed better skills towards managing/leading people within the workplace.

As promotional aspects were mentioned as key learning within the cognitive domain, it followed that mentees would have had some help towards developing related skills. This mentee discussed the help they had towards developing their interview preparation skills:

*“I’m still applying for jobs and my mentor helped me with the preparation...when it did come to the day I would dither, I wouldn’t be able to put sentences together, which really came across and she really helped me with that” (Mentee 5/Interview 4)*

This mentee reflected on their improved communication/influencing skills:

*“She did pick up on the fact that I’m quite an honest and open person and sometimes when I’m talking to senior officers and my colleagues, I perhaps shouldn’t be so honest...no one has ever said that to me before. So in that respect I was able to self-reflect... whether it’s ranked officers or my peers, in relation to thinking about what I’m going to say first, instead of just being so blunt sometimes” (Mentee 18/Interview 1).*

This mentee discussed improved awareness of how better to cope with workplace stress:

*“I’ve learned to try and avoid stress ... I’ve learned the value of avoiding stress. I’ve basically been overloaded with it for probably the past year-and-a-half, so it’s being able to say ‘no’ and pace myself...My mentor has kind of been saying it for a while and it’s gradually sunk in” (Mentee 15/Interview 3).*

Other responses were made about developing management/leadership skills, which made a difference in the workplace:

*“We talk about some tactics to sort of manage up, so to speak” (Mentee 6/Interview 2).*

*“Mentoring gave me the skills to manage/work with others better” (Mentee 4/Interview 4).*

In short, mentees revealed that they had learned and developed skills that had been both helpful for future promotional opportunities and transferable into their work roles too.

## **Mentors**

Mentors responded in 72.22% of interviews about the skill-based domain with 58 responses covering areas such as; the key mentoring skills of listening, questioning, rapport building and action planning together with responses made about learning to be better prepared, and managing the support and challenge in the relationship. Developing skills of empathy and empowering others, were mentioned in the later phases too. These two mentors discussed their improved listening skills:

*“I think I’ve learned to listen better and to try and think wider than I probably did before. So when she’s asked me a question, instead of going straight to my first instinct, I’ve thought how we can explore that a bit wider” (Mentor 11/Interview 2).*

*“My perseverance, I think I’ve learned, is quite good. I know when to stop as well. And I think my listening skills have got better” (Mentor 6/Interview 2).*

Two other mentors discussed learning about the importance of empowering others, even if sometimes the mentor felt that they may know the answers:

*“It is very easy isn’t it? - To tell people ‘oh well this is what you should do’ but I’m trying really hard not to... it’s just this sitting back and saying ‘Well, what do you think? How do you think you should deal with that?’ ...I am trying to be a bit more tolerant...They assimilate stuff differently to me and I am starting to work around that”*  
(Mentor 14/Interview 2).

*“The one thing I always remember...If you ask them to try and decide for themselves, you can help them get there, but you lead them along the way, you don’t pull them”*  
(Mentor 10/Interview 4).

Mentor 3 discussed working on their empathy skills:

*“I think probably trying to display more empathy and perhaps more feeling, because I do tend to have a very professional head on a lot of the time, so ... Sometimes just sitting back and maybe giving a little bit more of myself”* (Mentor 3/Interview 4).

In short, these responses revealed that mentors are building on already established mentoring skills and developing new skills too.

#### *8.1.1.3 Affective-related learning.*

It can be seen from Table 8.1 that most responses (just over a third of all the mentees [36.97%] and mentors responses [35.08%]) were made in relation to this domain.

### **Mentees**

In this domain, mentees made 95 responses across 96.88% of all interviews mentioning the key themes of increased self-confidence (half of the mentee interviews reported this), becoming more positive about their own abilities, job and future prospects, having faith in their own abilities and

developing an increased motivation. For instance, these two mentees discussed how reassurance from their mentor had increased their confidence to achieve more:

*“So she is really trying to push me for it. But that’s good; I said I wanted someone to be behind me...you can really doubt yourself sometimes and I have been lately...a lot of the time she has just been reassuring me - saying ‘you can do it, you just need to believe in yourself’ a lot...I’ve grown in confidence, definitely. I’m more likely to go for something or speak up more now than I did” (Mentee 23/Interview 1).*

*“She knew how I lacked confidence initially, and then through the mentoring she developed my confidence... The key changes are within me - my confidence has grown. And that I know I can achieve almost anything when I commit myself and put my all in to something. I’m not afraid anymore...Mentoring has given me the confidence to achieve what I want” (Mentee 16/Interview 3).*

Mentee 5 discussed how working with her mentor had helped her develop an improved belief in herself which has increased her focus for the future:

*“She also instilled confidence in me...it was just the confidence to believe in myself; that I was good at what I was doing and I can do something...I’d say it’s given me the clarity and confidence to put everything in perspective and look at some long-term goals and where I want to be” (Mentee 5/Interview 4).*

Interestingly, Mentee 15 reflected on how mentoring may help bridge the gap between women and men and their differing confidence levels:

*“And I think for women, a lot about going for promotion, or going for a specialism, is about confidence. I think mentoring helps significantly in that area. You’ve got an unconditional supporter that doesn’t judge you, isn’t involved in policing your day job, doesn’t have any of those hang-ups about you doing other stuff outside of your day job...mentoring has given me more confidence to assert where I’m coming from with things... Women generally suffer from a lack of confidence, you know, ‘I can’t do any of that, I can’t do those 3 skills’, whereas a bloke will go ‘I’ve got those 3 skills, I can do that’” (Mentee 15/Interview 4).*

Other responses in this domain were made in relation to mentees learning to be more positive:

*“I think it has just given me a kick up the bum as well. I was starting to feel a bit negative in the workplace... but I keep positive and just keep striving for what I want really...I think I'd be getting there but I think, with my mentor being so positive, it has rubbed off on me” (Mentee 10/Interview 1).*

*“It just feels positive having her. It sounds a bit strange, but when I meet up with her, it's like my mood gets better and better. I'm talking about my work and I get more and more happy and she's like ‘Wow! You're really passionate about your work.’ I don't know what it is, but having that relationship boosts my morale” (Mentee 17/Interview 3).*

In short, mentees responses within the affective-related learning domain most commonly focussed on building their inner confidence, building their self-esteem and becoming more positive.

## **Mentors**

For mentors, their 67 responses in this domain within 72.22% of the interviews tended to focus on learning an increased confidence in relation to their mentoring skills and ability to do mentoring well but also an increased self-awareness and increased positivity. This mentor initially worried about her ability to be a good mentor:

*“When I said I'd get involved in this I really regretted it and I thought why have I done this? But I don't feel like that anymore, I feel like actually, there's no reason why I can't do it now...I feel like it's stretching, but I don't feel like it's hard work... I am committed to mentoring and I'm sure that if it's done properly it can work” (Mentor 5/Interview 1).*

The same mentor later reflected in interview 2 about the positive, supportive aspects of mentoring:

*“It's made me think more about the fact that, you know, a lot of people are wrestling with the same issues as each other and if we only supported each other a little bit more and thought about how each other were feeling, then the workplace would be so much better” (Mentee 5/Interview 2).*

A different mentor reflected at the end of the process:

*“So it's not being arrogant, it's not being complacent, but actually, sometimes it's about that learning that I know more perhaps than I think I do sometimes...a little bit about trying to then become a bit more self-valuing than you are and increasing my confidence again” (Mentor 18/Interview 4).*

and Mentor 3 reflected on how by helping others they had been helping themselves:

*“One of the mentees said it to me, she said "You ought to listen to what you're saying yourself." She was right...It's all stuff that I should be thinking about as well, it's made me think about it. So in a way, I've been mentoring myself” (Mentor 3/Interview 3).*

In short, mentors affective-related learning focussed mainly on building their self-awareness and their confidence to mentor, which in turn they perceived was making a difference to themselves.

#### *8.1.1.4 Social networks.*

This was the least discussed domain of learning for both mentees and mentors.

### **Mentees**

Although this was the area with the least response from mentees (8.17% of all responses), social networks were mentioned in almost half of the mentee interviews (43.75%).

This mentee reflected on the mentor signposting them towards certain contacts:

*“She's given me the link for the Women In Policing and how to get involved - sort of in terms of networking and helping out...So she's sort of guiding me in the sense” (Mentee 12/Interview 1).*

Whereas this mentee hoped to use their mentor's connections in the future:

*"I think where she is and what she's doing, because she's working with XXX as well on the restructuring for all the admin and finance, she's got a good insight into what's going on in quite a big area of the force really...She's got a lot of connections"*  
(Mentee 20/Interview 2).

and this mentee shared how her mentor had helped her learn about a different workplace project:

*"She suggested XXX and I eventually got the training for it and I'm part of that now... I wouldn't have come across that if it wasn't for her involvement in it and suggesting it to me"* (Mentee 9/Interview 4).

Although the domain of least response from mentees, mentors contacts were clearly supporting mentees learning.

## **Mentors**

Although the area with the least responses for mentors (5.75% of all responses) and mentioned in a quarter of the interviews (25%), mentors did mention there was some learning in relation to contacts and networks. These two mentors reflected on how mentoring had helped them become more aware of the contacts that they have and they had learnt how helpful these are to others:

*"It amazes me how much ... or how many people I know...I said "I know so-and-so, I'll ring them up or you ring this person and they'll be able to tell you." And I suppose what it's brought home to me is actually the amount of enduring contacts I have... Even if they've moved to other roles and I've moved to other roles, I can still contact them and find stuff out"* (Mentor 14/Interview 3).

*"Knowing that my different resources/contacts that I have (i.e. people/websites/courses) have been helpful to others...Realised how useful these can be to other people. I am resourceful"* (Mentor 5/Interview 4).

Finally, this mentor reflected on how mentoring had meant she can add her mentees and the other

mentors to her network now too:

*“I’ve met three great people, well, more than three because obviously there’s the mentoring focus groups, but my three mentees are fab and now I’ve come into contact with a couple of people like XXX (the Co-ordinator of the mentoring programme), who are great, with all the support that they’ve given... And it’s just fab to know that there are other mentors out there spreading the word and supporting colleagues” (Mentor 18/Interview 4).*

Although the domain of least response, mentors through mentoring had made connections which could potentially open up the dialogue for future connections.

In summary, all four key learning domains were discussed by both mentees and mentors within the CEPF interviews. Some domains were more commonly mentioned than others, for instance the affective-related domain but it is clear that both parties perceived learning across all four domains. The mentee and mentor focus groups helped to reiterate and confirm this learning and will briefly be discussed in the next section.

#### ***8.1.2 Mentor focus group findings.***

2 mentee and 2 mentor focus groups were also carried out with mentees and mentors (November 2010/9 month point and February 2011/12 month point) to discuss the results so far and to gather any additional information. These were organised by the Mentoring Scheme Co-ordinator as part of their on-going evaluation of their mentoring programme.

Table 8.2 summarises the key domains that were discussed by mentees and mentors in both focus groups. Percentage attendance has been noted on the table too, as due to time pressures only a small number of mentees and mentors were able to attend. As already mentioned, seven mentees attended the first focus group and five mentees attended the second one. 10 mentors attended the first focus group and four attended the second one.



This Table generally confirms the pattern of what both parties had said in their interviews; that the affective-related domain was most mentioned and social networks the least.

**Table 8.2** - Additional supporting information from CEPF mentees and mentors in relation to their learning

<b>Mentee/ Mentor</b>	<b>Focus group/phase Domains of learning</b>	<b>1<sup>st</sup> focus group (initiation phase)</b>	<b>2<sup>nd</sup> focus group (cultivation phase)</b>	<b>Total number of responses/ sources</b>
<b>Mentees</b>	Cognitive	4	4	8
	Skill-based	5	4	9
	Affective-related	9	6	15
	Social networks	0	0	0
	<b>Total responses:</b>	<b>18 (56.25%)</b>	<b>14 (43.75%)</b>	<b>32</b>
	<b>Total sources:</b>	<b>7/32</b>	<b>5/32</b>	<b>-</b>
<b>Mentors</b>	Cognitive	8	5	13
	Skill-based	6	1	7
	Affective-related	10	3	13
	Social networks	1	1	2
	<b>Total responses:</b>	<b>25 (71.43%)</b>	<b>10 (28.57%)</b>	<b>35</b>
	<b>Total sources:</b>	<b>10/36</b>	<b>4/36</b>	<b>-</b>
<b>Overall total</b>	<b>Mentees/mentors responses together</b>	<b>43</b>	<b>24</b>	<b>67</b>

This table shows that the affective-related domain was most discussed by mentors and mentees in the focus group sessions; mentees 15 responses overall and mentors 13 responses overall. This was followed by the skill-based domain for mentees (9 responses) and the cognitive domain for mentors (13 responses). The least number of responses were in the social networks domain with no response from mentees and 2 overall from mentors.

The affective-related domain was mentioned more times for both mentees (9) and mentors (10) in the first focus group (and was in fact the highest number for any domain or focus group overall; 28 responses), with over half of the mentee responses and two thirds of the mentor responses being in this domain for the first focus group. The number of responses reduced between focus group 1 (43 total responses between mentee and mentor) and 2 (24 responses between mentee and mentor) and

in all four domains except for cognitive (mentees) and social networks (mentors) responses which remained the same. The lower attendance at the second mentee/mentor focus group may help to explain the drop in responses.

In the following section, some specific focus group responses will be shared against the four learning domains to support the interview quotes discussed earlier.

#### *8.1.2.1 Cognitive learning.*

##### **Mentees**

In the focus groups, this mentee discussed gaining an increased knowledge about their profile in the workplace:

*“It's being aware of first impressions...I walk in there and suddenly I'm supervising these people I don't even know. Having someone to tell you how it comes across is really important” (Mentee 13/Focus Group 1).*

These two mentees mentioned an increased knowledge of other areas and what others were going through:

*“I think the most important thing for me perhaps is, like you said, gaining some perspective. I think if it hadn't have been in place - the scheme, I think I probably would have got more bogged down in my own team environment and all the negativity there and perhaps thought I was the only one this was happening to and not appreciating that it is going on everywhere” (Mentee 9/Focus group 2).*

*“You feel quite isolated I think, sometimes we can feel very alone in such a big organisation and mentoring helps you discover that you're not” (Mentee 14/Focus group 2).*

##### **Mentors**

This mentor shared her learning about different perspectives:

*“I’m thinking in a different way. It’s challenging to think from a different perspective”  
(Mentor 19/Focus Group 1).*

This mentor challenged a mentor in the focus group that felt they weren’t learning anything so far:

*“You’re learning a different perspective that might have not been your own...if you’re having days when the day job is getting to you, and you think of your mentor being quite a positive person, that’s still learning about how they approach life and how they approach work” (Mentor 14/Focus Group 2).*

#### *8.1.2.2 Skill-based learning.*

##### **Mentees**

This mentee mentioned how through mentoring she had developed some presentation skills:

*“One of the best things I did this year (supported by my mentor) was that I had to do a speech to about 120 people and the Chief Constable was on view and I was quite terrified I have to say...I probably work well under pressure because I did the speech and I’ve got to say it was one of the best things I did last year” (Mentee 15/Focus Group 1).*

A different mentee reflected that mentoring had helped her to learn skills beyond the job:

*“Mentoring is more, I think, about giving you life-long skills, whether you go up or whether you go laterally or whether you stay and just enjoy the job more” (Mentee 16/Focus Group 2).*

##### **Mentors**

As before, mentors discussed developing their listening and questioning skills, illustrated by these two mentors saying:

*“I’m developing my analytical skills and listening – what do they really mean?”*  
(Mentor 10/Focus Group 1).

*“I’m a better communicator, as well as listening. Makes it easier to problem solve”*  
(Mentor 13/Focus Group 2).

#### 8.1.2.3 Affective-related learning.

##### **Mentees**

Again, learning to be more confident was a key theme in both focus groups for mentees. These quotes from two mentees illustrated this:

*“It’s building confidence in what you ... you know, you believe in what you believe, you know, that doubt in yourself, you know you’re right but you’ve got that doubt and you don’t want to look stupid if you get it wrong. Mentoring is like that double-check”*  
(Mentee 13/Focus Group 1).

*“I’ve learnt to sort of believe in yourself, because if you don’t, you’re not going to get anywhere...she was able to advise me and instil that confidence in me. So I think without her being there, I don’t know whether I’d be here now”* (Mentee 4/Focus Group 2).

##### **Mentors**

Confidence was again key learning for mentors too, illustrated by this mentor saying:

*“Didn’t think I’d be any good at it but now realise it’s part of where I want to be. Realise that sometimes you have to take the opportunities that come your way”*  
(Mentor 5/Focus Group 1).

A different mentor reflected that mentoring:

*“Made me listen, reflect, be grateful for who I am and where I am”*  
(Mentor 1/Focus Group 1).

This mentor learnt that being more positive in turn supported the positivity of their mentee too:

*“You feel the need to keep positive for your mentees, then behaviour breeds behaviour a little bit doesn't it? And then if you're helping others to keep positive, that might help you reflect on your own situation to see the positive in your own, so that's all good”*  
(Mentor 19/Focus Group 2).

#### 8.1.2.4 Social networks

### **Mentees**

There were no responses made in the focus groups about this domain by mentees.

### **Mentors**

Mentors reflected twice (once in each focus group) how they had learnt how important their networks were, with this mentor saying:

*“I've learnt how many people I know for network purposes”* (Mentor 7/Focus group 1).

In short, the focus group responses supported that both mentees and mentors have been learning across the four learning domains and they have helped to reinforce a particular emphasis on the affective-related domain, particularly in the area of building confidence for both mentees and mentors. These results also reinforced that social networks were the least mentioned domain for learning.

## **8.2 Result of addressing research question 2: *How does the learning change over time for both parties, within the CEPF?***

The second research question was aimed at understanding how the learning for both parties within the CEPF mentoring relationships had changed over time. Findings from the mentee and mentor interviews will be displayed in this next section.

### **8.2.1 *Learning over the different phases of the mentoring cycle.***

As with the NHS study, the four sets of researcher interviews were deliberately set up to coincide roughly with the four phases of the mentoring lifecycle (Kram, 1988). For instance, interview 1; at the end of the initiation phase (3 month point), interview 2; at the end of the cultivation phase (6 month point), interview 3; at the end of the separation phase (9 month point), interview 4; at the end of the redefinition phase (12 month point). Therefore, the response rates by mentees and mentors from their 68 interviews in relation to the four learning domains across these four mentoring lifecycle phases together are displayed in Table 8.3. The percentage response rate has been added too, to show how often these domains had been mentioned by the two parties. This Table 8.3 shows that throughout the beginning, middle and end phases of the formal mentoring programme, all four learning domains were mentioned by both mentors and mentees, but the frequency of mention varied across the different phases of the mentoring lifecycle. The highest total number of responses for both mentee and mentor were in the first (140 responses) and last phases (153 responses) of the mentoring lifecycle.

This table confirms that mentees perceived that they had gained more learning overall than mentors within each phrase of the mentoring lifecycle, particularly in phase 1 (mentees made 34 more responses than mentors) and phase 4/5 of the relationship (mentees made 25 more responses than mentors) and particularly within the cognitive and affective-related learning domains, across the various phases. Similarly to mentees, mentors affective-related responses increased over time, cognitive responses reduced over time and social networks remained at a low level throughout.

Skill based learning seemed to follow a similar increasing pattern for mentees but remained the same from phase 1 to phase 4 for mentors.

**Table 8.3** - Categorisation of the collected CEPF mentee/mentor responses on the four learning domains against Kram's (1988) four mentoring phases

Mentee/ Mentor	Phases/ Learning domains	Initiation/ Interview 1	Cultivation/ Interview 2	Separation/ Interview 3	Redefinition/ Interview 4	Total No. of Responses
<b>Mentees</b>	Cognitive	31 (36.05%)	19 (22.09%)	9 (10.46%)	27 (31.40%)	<b>86</b>
	Skill-based	20 (36.36%)	6 (10.91%)	9 (16.36%)	20 (36.36%)	<b>55</b>
	Affective-related	25 (26.32%)	12 (12.63%)	20 (21.05%)	38 (40%)	<b>95</b>
	Social networks	11 (52.38%)	6 (28.57%)	0 (0.00%)	4 (19.05%)	<b>21</b>
	<b>Total mentee responses:</b>	<b>87 (33.85%)</b>	<b>43 (16.73%)</b>	<b>38 (14.79%)</b>	<b>89 (34.63%)</b>	<b>257</b>
<b>Mentors</b>	Cognitive	22 (40%)	10 (18.18%)	8 (14.55%)	15 (27.27%)	<b>55</b>
	Skill-based	11 (18.97%)	16 (27.58%)	12 (20.69%)	19 (32.76%)	<b>58</b>
	Affective-related	20 (29.85%)	13 (19.40%)	11 (16.42%)	23 (34.33%)	<b>67</b>
	Social networks	0 (0.00%)	2 (18.18%)	2 (18.18%)	7 (63.64%)	<b>11</b>
	<b>Total mentor responses:</b>	<b>53 (27.75%)</b>	<b>41 (21.47%)</b>	<b>33 (17.27%)</b>	<b>64 (33.51%)</b>	<b>191</b>
<b>Overall total</b>	<b>Mentees/mentors responses together</b>	<b>140 (31.25%)</b>	<b>84 (18.75%)</b>	<b>71 (15.85%)</b>	<b>153 (34.15%)</b>	<b>448</b>

More specifically this table shows that for mentees, cognitive learning dominated the discussions in the first two phases (50 responses out of 130; 38.46% of responses in phase 1 and 2 together) but affective-related dominated them in the second two phases (58 responses out of 127; 45.67% of responses in phase 3 and 4.) This table also shows that for mentees, the total responses from all four learning domains decreased from the initiation/interview 1 responses (87 responses), as the mentoring relationship developed over time, until the final phase where responses increased to just over the initiation phase/interview 1 amount (89 responses). This was the same pattern for the cognitive and skill-based domains, again starting off with a higher response rate and reducing in phase 2 and 3 until coming back to close to the original response rate in the final phase; cognitive

moved from 31 phase 1 to 27 in phase 4; skill-based moved from 20 in phase 1 and back to 20 in phase 4. The affective-related domain is the only domain where mentees responses reduced in phase 2 and 3 but increased significantly from the first phase (25 responses) to the final phase (38 responses.) Social networks had the lowest response rate throughout the phases but responses were higher in the initiation phase/interview 1. Overall, social networks had the lowest response rate throughout (and in total: 21) and affective-related had the highest throughout (and in total: 95), as confirmed in Table 8.1 earlier.

For mentors, this table shows that the frequency of responses followed a similar pattern to the mentees in that the responses reduced after phase 1 (53 responses) and increased again, to higher than the starting amount in phase 4 (64 responses). This was the same pattern for the skill-based domain (starting at 11 and ending at 19) and affective-related learning (starting at 20 and ending at 23) but not so for the cognitive domain. Although this increased from phase 3 to 4, responses did not increase beyond the starting number (starting at 22 and ending at 15). In fact for the key most frequently mentioned domains, the majority of responses were either in interview 1 (cognitive), interview 2 and 3 (skill-based) and interview 4 (affective-related), suggesting a different dominant domain in each phase for mentors. The least amount of mentor responses were within the separation/phase 3 for the key three domains. The only domain where the responses increased over time, in small numbers, was social networks.

It seems clear from Table 8.3 that learning is greatest at both the start and the end phases of the mentoring relationship, for both parties within CEPF. Cognitive learning is perceived to be greater (by a small margin) at the start of mentoring and affective-related learning more likely to be discussed at the end, for both parties. Skill-based is more likely to be discussed at both the beginning and the end for mentees and the early middle to final phases for mentors.

In an attempt to show how the content of mentees and mentors responses changed over time too, Appendix XII shows the key responses made by both mentees and mentors about their learning, within each phase. These tables were used as the basis for the three monthly reports which were



sent back to the Mentor Co-ordinator and the overall senior manager report at the end of the mentoring lifecycle. Not all responses were listed here but the majority of themes and some direct quotes are listed here which are helpful to demonstrate a change of emphasis in the words used by mentees and mentors over time.

## **Mentees**

For mentees, Appendix XII shows that throughout the beginning, middle and end phases of the mentoring relationship they were learning through gaining an increased knowledge of other areas and a wider, more strategic perspective of the organisation (cognitive domain). Also, in the initial phases (interviews 1 and 2), they mentioned they were gaining some practical knowledge in terms of the promotion and interview processes, leadership and management and the career opportunities available but in the later phases (interview 3 and 4), they mentioned how much they were learning from their mentors in relation to the wider perspective and through their mentors as role models (particularly in interview 3) and that there was comfort in the knowledge that others had or were experiencing the same difficulties (interview 4).

The skill-based domain shows mentees were learning about goal setting, planning, listening, managing and communication skills. These were mentioned throughout all phases of the mentoring relationship but it was interesting to see that stress was a recurring theme, with coping mechanisms (interview 1), managing stress levels (interview 2) and helping to relieve stress (interview 3) discussed but this was not directly mentioned in interview 4, except perhaps the comment that says “skills to manage/work with others better.”

The affective-related domain had the most responses for mentees, across all interviews and the quotes cover learning in areas of increased confidence to do the job well, increased self-awareness, building trust, motivation and increasing self-esteem across all 4 interviews. As mentioned in the previous section, confidence was mentioned in all 4 areas; increased confidence (interview 1), developed confidence/more confident (interview 2), building self-confidence/helped

confidence/gaining more confidence/building confidence (interview 3) and confidence boost/confidence to achieve (interview 4.) Other factors linked to confidence were mentioned in this domain too; “anything is achievable, once you go for it” (interview 1), “feel more positive” (interview 2), “trusting myself” (interview 3) and “to believe in yourself” (interview 4.) The suggestion is that belief, positivity and trust are connected to feeling more confident too.

Social networks and mentees gaining new connections for now and into the future were mentioned minimally throughout but none were mentioned by mentees in interview 3 (as per table 7.3).

## **Mentors**

For mentors, Appendix XI shows that although mentors did mention that they were learning new insights into the wider organisation through their mentees, they did not mention this as much as mentees did, except perhaps in the early phase (interview 1). The learning in this cognitive domain by mentors was focussed much more on the mentee themselves and the mentoring relationship, with responses made throughout about being interested in their views, learning to value others and learning that different approaches work with different people. In fact, for mentors recognising difference was a theme throughout all four interviews; learning about differences between people (interview 1), recognising and understanding that all different (interview 2), everyone is different (interview 3) and need to personalise it when mentee not engaged (interview 4.)

Responses in the skill-based domain were mainly focussed on mentors developing their questioning, listening, empathy, preparation, challenging, rapport building and empowering skills. These were themes throughout all the four phases for mentors, with perhaps slightly more emphasis on challenging near the latter phases. These are all key skills of mentoring but also key skills that the mentors can take back to the workplace. There was also a theme of learning to holding back and perhaps providing less direct support throughout too, with pulling back (mentioned in interview 1), learning to wait (interim 2), holding back (interview 3) and being patient and holding back (interview 4.)

Affective-related learning again was a key domain covering areas of increased confidence for mentors in terms of their confidence to mentor but later in terms of their confidence within their own role. For instance, need for reassurance and confidence (interview 1), feel more assertive now (interview 2), feel empowered (interview 3) and inspire and instil confidence in others (interview 4.) There was much less self-doubt in the later phases of the affective-related domain for mentors, than the early phases.

Social networks again had minimal responses with no interview 1 responses (as per Table 8.3). The quotations in this table (Appendix XII) show that mentors did not mention the contacts that they had received from their mentees but more that they had been surprised to learn how their own contacts had been helpful within mentoring.

### ***8.2.2 Perceived personal change during and at the end of the mentoring lifecycle.***

After the first set of interviews (initiation phase), the question of what had changed was posed at all the subsequent mentee and mentor interviews (in the interview 2/cultivation phase, interview 3/separation phase and interview 4/redefinition phase). The findings are displayed in Table 8.4 and Table 8.5 and split by mentee and mentor between these three phases.

These tables show that confidence is a key theme for both parties (highlighted in red), together with responses in relation to friendship (highlighted in blue with a dotted line) and being comfortable (highlighted in yellow and green) to place emphasis on these aspects, for discussion later.

**Table 8.4** - Perceived changes personally experienced by mentees over time as a result of the mentoring

Interview 2 (cultivation phase)	Interview 3 (separation phase)	Interview 4 (redefinition phase)
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Mentoring helps me to feel valued</li> <li>• Feels more <b>comfortable</b></li> <li>• Less bedding in for each session, although time management still an issue</li> <li>• Has been one sided but now starting to bounce things off mentor in return</li> <li>• Started to develop some trust</li> <li>• Rapport getting better/<b>feel at ease</b></li> <li>• Feel able to ask more questions</li> <li>• <b>More confident and have secured a job</b></li> <li>• Getting to know my mentor better that I did a few months ago</li> <li>• I feel more involved in the organisation, <b>made a good friend</b></li> <li>• <b>Feel more confident that I do have a lot to offer</b> and would like to be considered for a mentor role</li> <li>• Feel more motivated to look for opportunities within my role</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Feel developing professionally now</li> <li>• Has helped me feel more positive at work</li> <li>• Should have made more effort; it's taken a back-burner recently</li> <li>• <b>My confidence has grown; I can achieve almost anything if I commit myself to it</b></li> <li>• I'm not afraid anymore; enjoyed applying for a job, even though I didn't get an interview</li> <li>• I hope my mentor has seen the change in me; I have a different attitude altogether</li> <li>• Now taking the 'bull by the horns'</li> <li>• <b>Self confidence</b></li> <li>• Motivation – was quite demoralised, but now feel I have the control back</li> <li>• Putting things on paper now for my PDR</li> <li>• If not know how to do something, I tended not to do it. Now I just go for it. Mentor has helped me to go for it</li> <li>• Feels more informal, <b>more comfortable</b></li> <li>• Can talk more openly</li> <li>• Helped mentor with some training delivery; we learn from each other more now/more of an equal relationship. I can turn that mirror back on her now</li> <li>• Have some type of action plan now</li> <li>• Mentor can now see the issues/increased understanding</li> <li>• <b>I feel more confident</b> and feel I always have someone to lend a hand to me</li> <li>• I have come away from the meetings feeling positive and that I can take some action to try and make my situation better with up and coming changes</li> <li>• <b>Have come away from the meetings feeling motivated and confident</b></li> <li>• Been a rollercoaster; someone I can trust</li> <li>• Mentoring helps me to feel being valued. Not feel valued by the job</li> <li>• I was able to see a difference between what I say and do; it was about my style and lacking in self esteem. I have raised self awareness and I'm not so apologetic now</li> <li>• <b>I have increased personal confidence.</b> When nervous, I laughed at the end of my sentences and it was seen as belittling to myself</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Feels more <b>comfortable</b></li> <li>• More open now. Felt a bit more guarded at the start</li> <li>• Talk about deeper topics now</li> <li>• <b>Friendship/want to stay in touch when formally over</b></li> <li>• <b>It has given me the clarity and confidence to put things into perspective</b></li> <li>• Clearer about my long term goals – where I want to be</li> <li>• I tend to be more open minded when meeting new people; I have recently changed roles and welcomed any support and <b>friendship</b> whatever the rank! I am willing to allow relationships at work to develop and not plan the outcome or set expectations.</li> <li>• Sometimes it has been easier to focus on being a Mum rather than on my development too. Having a mentor who was in the same position as me made me realise I could do both.</li> </ul>

**Table 8.5** - Perceived changes personally experienced by mentors over time as a result of the mentoring

Interview 2 (cultivation phase)	Interview 3 (separation phase)	Interview 4 (redefinition phase)
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Difficult to say but there have been changes</li> <li>• Some things have been a revelation</li> <li>• Mentees emails come across as being happier</li> <li>• Mentee has reached a goal/getting her foot in the door</li> <li>• <b>Mentee far more confident</b></li> <li>• <u>More of a friendship now than colleagues</u></li> <li>• First meetings were about change/progression, now mentee happy to stand still</li> <li>• Before it was about development, now it's about consolidating in new environment</li> <li>• <b>Growing more confident with each other/opening up a bit more</b></li> <li>• More relaxed with each other</li> <li>• <u>Relationship is definitely starting to grow and develop/become more personal</u></li> <li>• Getting more organised and disciplined about it/now getting outcomes</li> <li>• Feel more settled in the role and believe I do have things to offer</li> <li>• More <b>comfortable</b> speaking to someone I didn't know previously</li> <li>• Mentees are opening up more/more engaged</li> <li>• 1 mentee has had a significant change in her job</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• <u>Mentee has become a friend. I care about her.</u></li> <li>• Feeling that giving positive affect to others.</li> <li>• Mentee seems really <b>comfortable</b> with herself</li> <li>• Now reaping the rewards; makes you think differently</li> <li>• More of a genuine care. Takes a while to get to know the person, and then you want to do good for them</li> <li>• My perspective on my ability to do it</li> <li>• I feel like a different person now. There are more opportunities open to me now</li> <li>• It has given me a different approach to life</li> <li>• Can see the barriers that I'm putting up for myself</li> <li>• Developing skills now in other areas of the department/doing different things in my department</li> <li>• Realised I can do mentoring. Helped me to look at things differently</li> <li>• More conscious about encouraging people to do things for themselves</li> <li>• Does feel different and I can see a natural progression towards being less reliant and a more protracted relationship</li> <li>• Through mentoring I have learnt to help people see the solution for</li> <li>• Have developed skills through mentoring that use outside of work</li> <li>• I have learnt to listen in a different way; my answer is not necessarily their answer. I need to focus on them and not drive it</li> <li>• <b>Had some self-confidence issues, same as mentee.</b> Helping her to address them helps me to address mine</li> <li>• Needing to accept that sometimes there are things we don't want to change and need to accept that they are ok the way they are. Want to acknowledge that.</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• <b>Mentee appears to be more confident/ a sense of growing confidence</b></li> <li>• 2 out of 3 have gained a huge amount of learning – not too bad!</li> <li>• Relationship much more <b>comfortable</b> now; was a bit nervous at the start</li> <li>• <u>Relationship is more equal now; now we are two women who work in the same place. She asks about me too. It's a more personal relationship</u></li> <li>• Mentee got what she wanted (promotion) so just meet for an informal catch up</li> <li>• Mentee got more career focus</li> <li>• More positive outlook</li> <li>• I realise I can manage mentoring and my day job, so happy to carry on</li> <li>• Struggled with 1 out of 3 mentees</li> <li>• Not to worry if not giving same level of support to others</li> <li>• Still struggling with the balance between coaching and mentoring but learning that the overlap is ok</li> <li>• Fulfilling – seen real outcomes. See their confidence grow</li> <li>• Feel more <b>comfortable</b> with it</li> <li>• First one couldn't be bothered. <u>Other one I know like a friend</u></li> <li>• Didn't think it would have such an impact on people. Didn't think I could do it very well</li> <li>• Not frightened to explore now/<b>more confidence in my own thoughts</b></li> <li>• More honesty on both parts</li> <li>• <u>Got to know her and have genuine relationship</u></li> <li>• I didn't know I could make a difference by mentoring someone but now I know I can</li> <li>• Feel my skills have developed over time. Have had less learning lately but I'm still enjoying it</li> </ul>

## **Mentees**

Within Table 8.4, the volume of responses suggest that there was much more change discussed in interview 3/the separation. It is interesting to note that the majority of mentee responses were made about the affective-related domain and very little is mentioned about cognitive, skill-based and the network aspects. Mentee responses seemed to be centred on feeling more comfortable in the relationship (see highlighted areas), having a clearer direction/action plan and increased confidence (areas where confidence was mentioned have been underlined). Mentees mentioned the difference that mentoring had made within their approach to their job too; “I tend to be more opened minded when meeting new people” with a few responses made about friendship (see dotted line responses.)

## **Mentors**

Within Table 8.5, similarly to mentees, it seems clear that there was much more change discussed in interview 3/the separation phase, although within the final interviews, a large amount of change was mentioned by mentors too. It is interesting to note too, that as for mentees, the majority of responses were made about the affective-related domain and very little was mentioned about cognitive, skill-based and the network aspects. For mentors, the responses tended to focus on feeling more comfortable over time (see highlighted areas), more awareness or consciousness about their contribution towards their mentees changes and also increased confidence (see underlined words). Interestingly, mentors in the latter phases were commenting more on the changes for their mentees, than themselves; specifically in terms of confidence. Mentors did mention friendship as a developing theme suggesting that the mentoring relationships may continue more informally over time.

### **8.3 Result of addressing research question 3: *What are the factors that moderate mentee and mentor learning during their formal mentoring relationships, within the CEPF?***

The third research question was aimed at understanding what both parties perceived had influenced their learning within their CEPF mentoring relationships. Findings from the mentee and mentor interviews will be displayed in this next section, together with the findings from four focus groups.

#### **8.3.1 *Mentee and mentor interview findings.***

Throughout all the CEPF interviews, all mentees and mentors were asked to describe the factors (if any) that they felt had been enabling or hindering their respective mentoring relationships. These were then coded, categorised and sorted for both mentee and mentor against Hegstad and Wentling's (2005) facilitating and hindering moderators. As mentioned before, their 'Design/structure of process' and 'Design/development issues' factors have been merged as one, as have 'effective, ongoing communication' and 'communication difficulties.' Also, their 'participant satisfaction and commitment' factor has not been included, as all mentees and mentors were asked to rate their satisfaction with mentoring and this was rated between 7 to 10 out of 10, so it is assumed that those responded were satisfied. Four additional factors were added due to the volume of responses made by mentees and mentors; difference, other relationships, personal factors and similarity. Subsequently, all these responses were then divided depending on whether they were positively described (facilitating factors) or negatively described (hindering factors) and can be seen in Table 8.6.

Table 8.6 shows that at least one comment was made by either a mentee or a mentor that related to 15 out of the 20 moderating factors, of which 11 were from the original Hegstad and Wentling moderating factors. No responses were made by either the mentees or mentors in relation to five of Hegstad and Wentling's moderating factors, namely: 'Co-ordinator/Mentoring Team Commitment', 'Corporate Structure/Size', 'Design/Structure of Process', 'Participant Empowerment' and 'Thorough Development'.

As can be seen in this Table, 14 of these 15 moderating factors had responses from both mentees and mentors. Mentees made more responses in seven of the jointly mentioned factors, mentors made more responses in five of the jointly mentioned factors and two factors had the same number of responses ('Effective, On-going Communication' and 'Personal Factors'). One factor was only mentioned by mentors only and this was 'Mentor Recruitment.' In total, mentees made 440 responses and mentors 492 responses; in total mentors made 52 more responses than mentees. It is interesting to note too, that mentees made more positive responses (240 out of 440 overall) but that mentor responses were slightly more negative (255 out of 492 overall); mentees made 54.55% and mentors made 48.17% positive responses.

This table shows that all mentees and mentors contributed to the discussion about moderating factors, over time. For mentees, the highest number of responses (above 35) were within the 'Human Resource Challenges' (now referred to as HR Challenges), 'Management Priority' (now referred to as managers), 'Effective Matching Strategy', 'Organizational Changes', 'Time Constraints,' (now referred to as time) 'Personal Factors' and 'Similarity' factors. Collectively, these accounted for 329 mentee responses (74.78% of all mentee responses) raised across 100% of all mentee interviews (n=32).

Similarly, for mentors the majority of responses (above 35) were clustered around six of these seven but not 'Effective Matching Strategy' but in addition 'Difference.' For mentors, collectively these responses accounted for 360 mentor responses (73.17%) raised across 86.11% or 31 of all mentor interviews (n=36). These seven key moderating factors which received the highest number of responses for mentees and the highest seven for mentors have been chosen for further discussion, in the next table (Table 8.7). This table shows whether the responses were predominantly positive or negative for either party with more specific detail in relation to number of responses and sources. The Table also shows the number of responses as a percentage of all the mentee and mentor responses. It also shows the number of mentee and mentor interviews in which these moderating factors were mentioned and the percentage response rates.



















**Table 8.6** - Factors that moderated the learning that took place within the CEPF mentoring relationships

Moderating factors (Taken from Hegstad & Wentling, 2005 with some additional factors added)	MENTEES No. of sources (n=20)	MENTEES No. of responses	+	-	MENTORS No. of sources (n=18)	MENTORS No. of responses	+	-	TOTAL no. of mentee and mentor responses
Alignment of program and organisational missions	1	3	2	1	2	2	1	1	5
Confidentiality/Trust	10	14	5	9	4	4	1	3	18
Co-ordinator/mentoring team commitment	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
Corporate Structure/size	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
Design/structure of process	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
Distance/location of pairs	21	27	18	9	15	28	10	18	55
Effective matching strategy	20	37	30	7	18	34	11	23	71
Effective, ongoing communication	5	8	2	6	6	8	8	0	16
Human resource challenges	17	35	10	25	11	41	5	36	76
Mentor recruitment	0	0	0	0	19	27	22	5	27
Not always a management priority	27	43	28	15	25	39	26	13	82
Organizational changes	25	58	13	45	23	79	21	58	137
Participant empowerment	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
Through development	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
Time constraints	33	54	16	38	31	82	28	54	136
Top-level management support	4	4	3	1	3	3	3	0	7
<u>Additional factors:</u>									
Difference	18	24	20	4	23	38	28	10	62
Other relationships	15	31	21	10	14	26	21	5	57
Personal factors	18	38	9	29	20	38	11	27	76
Similarity	32	64	63	1	23	43	41	2	107
<b>TOTAL (all factors)</b>	-	<b>440</b>	<b>240 (54.55 %)</b>	<b>200 (45.45 %)</b>	-	<b>492</b>	<b>237 (48.1 7%)</b>	<b>255 (51.8 3%)</b>	<b>932</b>

**Key:** + = facilitating/supporting responses and - = hindering/not supporting responses

**Table 8.7 - The 8 key moderating factors within the CEPF mentoring relationships, showing the extent to which they were positively or negatively mentioned**

8 key moderating factors	MENTEE No. of sources		MENTEE No. of responses		MENTEE responses mostly...	MENTOR No. of sources		MENTOR No. of responses		MENTOR responses mostly...
<b>HR CHALLENGES</b>	17 (53.13%)		35 (7.95%)			11 (30.56%)		41 (8.33%)		
Positive/negative Sources/Responses	+	-	+	-	 hindering	+	-	+	-	 hindering
	8	10	10	25		4	11	5	36	
<b>MANAGERS</b>	27 (84.38%)		43 (9.77%)			25 (69.44%)		39 (7.93%)		
Positive/negative Sources/Responses:	+	-	+	-	 helpful	+	-	+	-	 helpful
	22	9	28	15		20	7	26	13	
<b>EFFECTIVE MATCHING STRATEGY</b>	20 (62.50%)		37 (8.41%)			18 (50%)		34 (6.91%)		
Positive/negative Sources/Responses:	+	-	+	-	 helpful	+	-	+	-	 hindering
	17	4	30	7		10	13	11	23	
<b>ORGANISATIONAL CHANGES</b>	25 (78.13%)		58 (13.18%)			23 (63.89%)		79 (16.06%)		
Positive/negative Sources/Responses:	+	-	+	-	 hindering	+	-	+	-	 hindering
	11	20	13	45		11	20	21	58	
<b>TIME</b>	32 (100%)		54 (12.27%)			31 (86.11%)		82 (16.67%)		
Positive/negative Sources/Responses:	+	-	+	-	 hindering	+	-	+	-	 hindering
	13	27	16	38		16	25	28	54	
<b>PERSONAL FACTORS</b>	18 (56.25%)		38 (8.64%)			20 (55.56%)		38 (7.72%)		
Positive/negative Sources/Responses:	+	-	+	-	 hindering	+	-	+	-	 hindering
	7	16	9	29		10	15	11	27	
<b>SIMILARITY</b>	32 (100%)		64 (14.55%)			23 (63.89%)		43 (8.74%)		
Positive/negative Sources/Responses:	+	-	+	-	 helpful	+	-	+	-	 helpful
	16	3	63	1		23	2	41	2	
<b>DIFFERENCE</b>	18 (56.25%)		24 (5.45%)			23 (63.89%)		38 (7.72%)		
Positive/negative Sources/Responses:	+	-	+	-	 helpful	+	-	+	-	 helpful
	16	3	20	4		20	8	28	10	

*Note: Positive and negative sources do not add up to total sources, as some respondents mentioned both positive and negative factors*

This table (Table 8.7) shows that mentees and mentors agreed that ‘Managers’ together with ‘Similarity’ and ‘Difference’ were mostly facilitating factors within mentoring but that ‘HR Challenges’, ‘Organisational Changes’, ‘Time’ and ‘Personal Factors’ were mostly hindering factors. Interestingly, mentees and mentors disagreed about whether ‘Effective Matching Strategy’

were facilitating or hindering. Mentees mentioned in 62.50% of their interviews that this factor was mostly facilitating but mentors suggested, in half of their interviews (50%) that they could be hindering the mentoring relationships.

‘Similarity’ created the greatest number of responses for mentees overall (14.55% of the total mentee responses) and this factor together with ‘Time’ for mentees were mentioned in 100% of mentee interviews. For mentors their highest response rate was in relation to ‘Time’ (16.67% of the total mentor responses) as well as being mentioned in the highest number of mentor interviews (86.11%). The least mentioned factor for comment for mentees was ‘Difference’ (only 24 mentee responses), yet HR Challenges were mentioned in the least amount of mentee interviews (53.13%). For mentors, ‘Effective Matching Strategy’ received the lowest responses (34 mentor responses) yet again, HR Challenges were mentioned in the least amount of mentor interviews (30.56%). The highest number of positive responses for mentees were in the area of ‘Similarity’ (63 positive responses) which was the same factor for mentors, (41 positive responses.) Factors with the most negative responses for mentees were ‘Organizational Changes’ (45 negative responses) and ‘Time’ (38 negative responses) and these were the same factors for mentors (58 negative responses on ‘Organisational Changes’ and 54 negative responses on ‘Time’.) Overall within these eight factors, the factor with most differentiation between positive and negative responses came for mentees and mentors within ‘Similarity;’ 61 positive to one negative for mentees and 41 positive to two negative responses for mentors.

The findings relating to each of the key eight moderating factors in this Table 8.7 will now be discussed in some detail.

#### *8.3.1.1 HR Challenges.*

For the purposes of this research, HR Challenges are concerned with the issues faced in relation to developing and supporting people, in the organisation. Any responses made in connection with organisational culture have been included in this section too.

## Mentees

In 53.13% of all mentee interviews (n=17) HR Challenges were mentioned, with the majority of responses from mentee interviews (25 out of 35) suggesting that they had a negative influence on their mentoring relationships.

The key themes discussed were the lack of support for promotion, lack of personal learning and lack of development opportunities available to all. Here are some examples:

*“And I think as well it probably highlights other weaknesses perhaps for people who are going for promotion where ... It's not like the organisation runs any courses, it expects you to pass your exams and then pass your interview and it's all done on your own merits, but there's not really any input...So off you go and on your head be it” (Mentee 2/Interview 1).*

*“They need to make, in my opinion, especially for women who tend to have more caring responsibilities, the promotional process more transparent. Especially the big step from basic grade to first line supervisor. It's just not there at the moment and I think that puts so many people off” (Mentee 15/Interview 4).*

These lack of development support factors had an impact on what could be discussed and targeted within the mentoring sessions, as well as link directly to aspects of organisational cultural. Here are some examples:

*“So for me, and I think that's probably why I've struggled, I haven't got friends in high places and all the people I know who've got mentors they generally do tend to be men. They generally do tend to play golf with people who are substantially higher in rank ...share shoes. Or they're on the Accelerated Promotion Scheme. And for everybody else it's something we talk about, we talk about it a lot, but I don't think we actively pursue it” (Mentee 12/Interview 1).*

*“People learn through cascaded training, which is ok, but it cuts corners...We're good at learning by mistakes, but you normally have to get performance at such a poor level that it*

*goes horribly wrong and you then have an enquiry or a grievance or a complaint that you can go 'Oh, ok, we're going to learn here' (Mentee 15/Interview 4).*

Both these responses above suggested that in the absence of other developmental opportunities available, this women's mentoring programme was having a positive impact on women (who don't play golf!).

This was confirmed by the positive responses which focussed on how mentoring was helping mentees to navigate their way towards development opportunities that were available for them. Illustrated by this mentee:

*"I had an email from her today about an out of Force course which will be quite nice as well...I've thought if the interview process does come up, those might actually assist me in that as well" (Mentee 20/interview 3).*

Where there are no obvious promotion and learning and development pathways (due to organisational changes, lack of transparency etc.) mentoring seemed to be bridging this gap; providing in itself a development opportunity for those that wish to take part. Summed up by this mentee:

*'I think (mentoring) can only be positive and it shows that XXX, as an organisation, is looking after the long-term welfare of staff. Because it's not something that you can get from HR, it's not something you can get from anyone else really, not through your manager, just someone to sometimes just say it like it is really' (Mentee 4/Interview 1).*

## **Mentors**

In 30.56% of the mentors interviews, HR Challenges were discussed (n=11) and out of 41 total responses, 36 were negative. The key hindering issues discussed by mentors were mostly in relation to the culture of the organisation; specifically the perceived cultural challenges and differences between Police Officers and Police Staff employees.

This mentor reflects on the lack of support within the organisation for newly qualified Officers:

*“When it was the old XXX, I’d see a lot of young student officers coming through and quitting very soon on and I always wished there was some kind of mentoring service ... which is why I applied for this... But when I signed up for it I thought I may be baby-sitting young officers that are struggling with their confidence out on the street. Struggling to approach someone and to self-initiate work and I thought that would be absolutely perfect. Because I’ve seen some good officers be lost I think” (Mentor 11/Interview 2).*

This mentor may have misunderstood the purpose of this mentoring scheme but this quote does highlight the lack of other support and development opportunities available in the CEPF.

Two other mentors reflected on the perceived differences in motivation to be mentored and promotional focus between Police Officers and Police Staff, which would suggest some ‘cultural blocks’ towards mentoring :

*“There would be different motivations for mentoring from Police Officers and Police Staff, definitely. Rightly or wrongly my perception from a lot of Police Officers is it's around promotion and development. Police Staff; more around support and development because there are no promotion prospects for them, so I think that impacts...there might be that 'Why are they going to mentor me because they're Police Staff and I'm a Police Officer, so what are they going to add to me?'... I think we've got cultural blocks” (Mentor 18/Interview 4).*

*“I do find it really, really rewarding and I have done lots of informal mentoring before, for Boards and things with Police Officers, so it’s really nice to do it with Police staff. And it’s very, very different with Police staff and that’s been really interesting... Police officers have a path that they’re going down and they kind of like know exactly where they want to go and it’s just about you trying to direct them and support them and help them...Whereas with Police staff it’s a lot, lot harder. And I think, particularly given the current climate, it’s been really, really hard to try and motivate them” (Mentor 16/Interview 2).*

This mentee commented on the pressure to conform to keep your job:

*“I am the stereotypical XXX Police employee. I’ve been conditioned. I did a personality questionnaire and fell into I think it’s something like 80% of what most CEPF Police employees are...How sad...The job definitely conditions you - 100% percent. And you conform...If you want to keep your job, you know” (Mentor 10/Interview 1).*

The few (5) positive responses mentioned how mentoring was a helpful step towards meeting some of the HR Challenges in the organisation and interesting one mentee said:

*“Somebody else talked a lot about the culture, but for me - sitting where I sit, there is still that rank orientation that does drive a lot of people” (Mentor 18/Interview 4).*

#### 8.3.1.2 Managers.

#### **Mentees**

84.38% of the mentor interviews discussed the influence of managers (n=27), with the majority of responses being about supportive line managers. Positive responses centred on managers being keen to support mentees development:

*“My manager I’ve had for three-and-a-half years, I read through everything with her before I got on to the scheme and she was very supportive, she was the one who said to definitely go for it” (Mentee 12/Interview 1).*

Some mentioned having managers who were part of either the women’s group that supported this programme and /or who knew someone who was already a member of the scheme, and so were more supportive:

*“I’ve been quite lucky in that my Inspector is the partner of one of the ladies on this scheme” (Mentee 9/Interview 1).*

Mentee 8 reflected that their manager was supportive but not necessarily because they understood

the value of the scheme but because they trusted their employees:

*“They're quite supportive in terms of letting me go out, so that has been quite good for me. To be honest I don't think it's because they understand the value of mentoring, I think it's because they're fairly trusting of me and are not that bothered” (Mentee 8/Interview 4).*

Some managers were less actively supportive but this did not have a huge impact if mentees job roles allowed them to manage their own diaries or ‘walk out’ (so they did not have to involve their managers). As illustrated by these two mentees:

*“I manage my own diary. She’s aware that I’m doing it, hasn’t taken an interest one way or another to be honest. I’ve just told her I’m doing it, ran it past her, ‘everything ok?’, and that was it. I’ve had no feedback from her” (Mentee 20/Interview 1).*

*“I kind of just walk out, 'I'm off' and they just wait for me to arrive back...I also have two female Sergeants that are job share so, you know, I think that does help a little bit, they can understand that there can be different obstacles at times, towards your career progression” (Mentee 2/Interview 1).*

Interestingly, the first of these two quotes suggest that a female manager had not been overly supportive but the other one suggests that because they were female in a senior position, they were more supportive.

15 responses were made about lack of management support and this mentee was particular fluent in discussing their lack of management support for mentoring:

*“My management have not embraced my abstractions positively... Lack of management support doesn't worry me because there are ways around it. I just find it disappointing.... there's a huge emphasis on performance now and, you know, being mindful of what you're spending your time on... it's very short-termism” (Mentee 11/Interview 3).*



## Mentors

There were more supportive (26) than unsupportive (13) responses about mentors line managers too. Mentors were positive about managers helping to support the mentoring programme:

*“My line manager has been really helpful, because I've had no issues at all with the time...I do manage it and I think that's probably why I've got the reciprocal, very good relationship with my line manager...there's no checking up or anything like that” (Mentor 14/Interview 1).*

Mentor 2 reflected that the flexibility in her role and her senior position helped her to be more assertive about mentoring in her work time:

*“For me, I've always had the support from my supervisors...But I'm a Sergeant as well, so I suppose I'm in that role where I can dictate a little bit more, I can say 'I'm going to do this' rather than 'Can I do this?' (Mentor 2/Interview 4).*

Three mentors reflected on the fact that their managers were part of the mentoring scheme and/or part of the CEPF Women in Policing group which helped to ensure they were more supportive, as illustrated by these two examples:

*“Luckily one of the ladies in charge of the Inspector, she's one of the mentors...But I haven't been able to see her either to be quite honest, it's just mega, really busy...she's in the hierarchy. They walk around now and again” (Mentor 4/interview 1)*

*“My Inspector is part of the XX Association for Women In Policing, she sits on the committee, so she's very understanding about that” (Mentor 9/Interview 1)*

Some of the mentor's managers were said to be uninterested or too busy but did allow mentors the time to mentor. This mentor reflected that her manager lets her get on with it but did not ask her about it:

*“So have I had support from my line manager? - No. But is that because my line manager just leaves me to get on and do what I need to do? – Yes. Does my line manager ask me about it? - No. Should they? - Yes. So I think there are discrepancies around a line manager - abilities, capabilities, knowledge, lots of different factors around line managers” (Mentor 18/Interview 3).*

There were other negative responses made about unhelpful inconsistencies with managers and lack of understanding/awareness from managers, with one mentor reflecting that:

*“I had some cross words with him (Manager) ... I don’t get on with him particularly. It’s one of the things he said, “Oh, I’ve let you do your mentoring” like he was doing me a favour. It’s the way he said it and I felt like saying, you know, that you should be letting me do it...So I didn’t appreciate that comment from him the other day” (Mentor 2/Interview 1).*

Interestingly, this mentor (Mentor 2) mentioned a positive comment about her supervisors in interview 4, as demonstrated earlier on, in this section.

#### *8.3.1.3 Effective, matching strategy.*

### **Mentees**

In 62.50% of mentee interviews (n=20), matching was discussed, with 30 out of 37 responses being positive. These mentee responses are illustrative of how they felt they had been matched:

*“So I just went in basically as if it was a blank canvas and I thought right, ok, let’s start our relationship, let’s get a footing, let’s see if we get on and we’ll progress from there. And we’ve clicked very well... Once I think the first meeting was over with, the second meeting was almost as if it was a chat between old friends...It’s working perfectly” (Mentee 19/Interview 1).*

*“So we talked about lots of things that I want to do, a lot of personal stuff, trying to get to know each other. And I found that she’s a really good match to myself because she seems to have a similar family life and she understands, being a mother herself, what I’ll be going through when hopefully I do get through to a Police Officer role...it’s been so good and I just think I’ve had the perfect partner really” (Mentee 23/Interview 1).*

*“I think that's the important thing when you've got the mentor and mentee, that they need to have similar expectations of that relationship and I think with us there's that matching”*  
(Mentor 17/Interview 3).

Some mentees mentioned they were not given any choice with their mentor match but this mentee mentioned having an influence on choosing their mentor, was helpful too:

*“It was really good being able to have an influence on selecting the mentor, because the three that I've picked - my top three - were ones who have got children and partners in the job, because that for me is where the balancing act comes. I love work and I love doing what I do, but it's got to fit in with everything else and my Inspector is a really good Inspector but she doesn't have that juggle that I have...it's got to be matched right”*  
(Mentee 1/Interview 1)

Negative responses about matching were in relation to one mentee wanting a mentor in a more strategic position and a rank above them, two mentors not keeping in regular touch with a mentee, one mentor feeling that they could not help the mentee as they were not in a Police Officer role and one mentee feeling that her learning style had been misunderstood:

*“In our first meeting I spoke to XX and she said is there anything you need to work on and I said public speaking and she came back to me on Friday with this...and I know she's going to give me reams and reams more. But I'm going to have to tell her some way or another”* (Mentee 21/Interview 3).

## **Mentors**

In 50% of mentor interviews (n=18), matching was discussed, with 23 out of 34 responses being negative. 12 of these responses related to mentors concerns about rank and different work area, as illustrated by these two mentors:

*“I said ‘My only concern is because of what your expectations are about how you want to broaden your knowledge around policing, I don't know if I can help you, or if I'm the best person to help you around that, because I'm obviously not from a policing background” (Mentor 7/Interview 1).*

*“X sent me four people who want mentoring, but they're all PCs who want Sergeant progression... I know my place, I'm a civilian at the end of the day...I don't want them to think that they've got a bum deal as well, because if I'm not going to give them what they need to get, what's the point in us putting the time and effort in” (Mentor 10/Interview 4).*

Other mentors mentioned lack of commitment from mentees to meet up, suggesting this may be related to a mis-match, as illustrated by these two mentors:

*“Yes. I think I'll probably give it to, maybe, start of the New Year, fresh thinking, and I'll drop her a line and say 'How are you getting on? Have you thought any more about what we talked about?' And if she says 'No' ... then I'll just say 'This isn't going very well and maybe I'm not the right person for you' or ...There could be a variety of reasons” (Mentor 6/Interview 2).*

*“She's one of those people that when you see her it's really 'Oh, I really get a lot out of this, this is great'. And then I say ‘Well, ok, shall we make an appointment?’ ‘Well I can't really make ...’ and then she never gets in touch and you think what bit is it ... I'm getting mixed messages, you know...I've actually said to her, ‘Genuinely, if you don't want to do it anymore, I won't be offended or upset, it's down to you.’ But it's ‘Yes, I really like it’ and then I have nothing” (Mentor 14/Interview 3).*

There were 11 positive responses made about matching with mentors saying that the good matching had made for more effective mentoring relationships, illustrated by these two mentors:

*“What's been most effective I think so far, is the matching process has been very good, because I feel that I've got someone that I'm not in really deep water with, that I understand...I think it works to both our advantages really” (Mentor 5/Interview 1).*

*“We still meet up on a friendly basis and we went out on Wednesday night for our tea and we were chatting and she was saying how much she enjoyed it and how before I met you I wouldn't have been able to do this and to do that. And even though she's gone back a little bit in her career, she's so much happier. We're just friends now” (Mentor 14/Interview 4).*

#### 8.3.1.4 Organisational changes.

### **Mentees**

In 78.16% of mentee interviews (n=25), organisational changes were discussed, with the highest number of responses overall with 45 out of 58 responses being negative. Lack of job security was the most commonly mentioned negative aspect of organisational change, with half of the mentees mentioning uncertainty in their current job role and for the future having an impact on their mentoring conversations. This suggested that change was a key focus of the mentoring discussions but also that mentoring was a much needed sounding board in these difficult times. For example, one mentee said:

*“Like at the moment I'm feeling all unloved - I've been kicked out of my office, my job has been advertised, my Superintendent doesn't seem to be talking to me. I'm thinking 'Have I done something wrong?’” (Mentee 2/Interview 1).*

Mentee 20 mentioned how her mentor could help with supporting her through these uncertain times:

*“I think I would certainly like to keep going until I know what's happening with the job ...I think she can give me quite a bit for that. Support if nothing else. And then I suppose it would be a case of after that seeing a) if I've got a job, b) what that job is and whether I need further support within that new role, if it is a new role” (Mentee 20/Interview 2).*

The change programme having an impact on the lack of vacancies and personal development opportunities were other key issues discussed by the mentees, again restricting their mentoring discussions in relation to having clarity towards future goals and opportunities available:

*“I'd say that the one area that we've struggled with is because we've tried to focus on work, and initially my objective of going into it was to develop in my role and look for other opportunities to move up, and obviously those opportunities haven't really been there. And with the current environment that we're in at work there's still limited opportunities for development” (Mentee 9/Interview 4).*

13 responses by mentees were positive, with this mentee saying how the organisational changes had helped them to find some common ground to get their mentoring started:

*“Don't get me wrong, when we first were meeting up then you'd have the first 10 minutes of going "Change programme - hate it! Aaarghh!" So there was immediately a kind of bonding over that - in terms of some of the negative aspects that were coming out of it” (Mentee 15/Interview 4).*

Another positive comment showed how mentoring within times of change, had helped this mentee look more proactively for opportunities:

*“I've always been fairly pro-active in my development, but I think that has suffered a bit with the change programme and redundancies and things like that and I think having the mentoring scheme in place... it's made me look more for what I can do” (Mentee 21/Interview 4).*

## **Mentors**

In 63.89% of mentee interviews (n=23), organisational changes were discussed, with the highest number of responses overall with 58 out of 79 responses being negative. The most discussed area by mentors again was in relation to the insecurities felt for their jobs into the future and how this has reduced their ability to help their mentees as much as they would have liked. Each mentor who responded in this section mentioned this on average twice.

This mentor mentioned the impact of the uncertainty about having a job in 6 months' time:

*“I think for her, more so than for me, at the moment, well, for everybody really in the organisation, there's quite a bit of uncertainty about whether we're still going to be here in six months' time” (Mentor 5/Interview 1).*

The lack of job security has had an impact on how much mentors could help their mentees. With this mentor saying how demotivated she felt herself when she could not directly help her mentee:

*“I think the only hindrance is, and it's something totally out of everyone's control, the situation - the current climate. It's very difficult...I walked away from my mentee last time, and I thought I really don't know what to say...So the negativity I think is the biggest thing at the moment, the biggest barrier to it” (Mentor 14/Interview 3).*

This mentor discusses how the lack of development opportunities created by the change programme were demoralising and had an effect on the mood and purpose of mentoring:

*“There's no jobs out there, it's so tough, there's nothing. But then things are going to change, so we'll wait and see....It's quite hard... if you knew there were jobs that were going to come about, you could have a goal that you can see and you can reach (within mentoring)” (Mentor 10/Interview 2)*

The 28 positive responses centred around the new jobs and other opportunities that were coming through the organisational change programme. The mentor above who said “it's so tough” was now saying two interviews later, that the recent changes had opened up new job opportunities for discussion as part of her mentoring sessions:

*“We went from a chat six months ago saying it was a bit doom and gloom, it's hard to know what to say and then actually, six months later, she's got a different job, she's quite happy, I know obviously it's not the be all and end all for her” (Mentor 10/Interview 4)*

This mentee reflected on the positivity and experience she had shared with her mentor in relation to surviving change programmes:

*“Just being positive. And it is such a stalemate, and it must be so disheartening for her...It's quite sad really, because the XXX used to be once you were in, that was it, job for life and it's not like that now...And it's not forever, we'll have a new Chief come in and it will change again. We'll expand, we'll decrease, and it's just the way it is...In 15 years we've probably gone full circle about three times” (Mentor 14/Interview 3)*

#### 8.3.1.5 Time.

##### **Mentees**

In 100% of mentee interviews (n=32), time was discussed, with 38 out of 54 responses being negative. The biggest issues here were in relation to a heavy workload and therefore having to cancel meetings at the last minute and rearrange. Also, issues with differing shift patterns created problems when meeting up linked to those that worked some distance away.

These three mentees reflected on the issues of getting time in work to meet up:

*“Shifts and lack of opportunities are hindering in the current climate...due to commitments on both sides I have not been able to meet as often as I would have liked or have as much contact as I would have envisaged” (Mentee 11/Interview 2).*

*“I should've met up with her yesterday, but unfortunately we had to cancel because it's just been a really mental few weeks at work to be honest... Her shift pattern is different to my shift pattern. And then I do six hour days and I don't find that I have a lot of time to myself anyway. So trying to make that time is what I'm finding difficult... Nobody can wave a magic wand and fix that really, it's something that I've got to manage” (Mentee 1/Interview 1).*

*“It's just an observation in terms of how the organisation values the process. But, you know, we've all got a day job and if I'm doing that (mentoring), I'm not doing my day job which has an effect on my life balance. So there's no easy answer, there's no right or wrong answer there” (Mentee 18/Interview 1).*



Mentee 3 reflected that it would have been better to meet up, than rely on emails:

*“I have been on the mentoring programme for 12 months but have not been able to meet with my mentor. We have communicated regularly via email but have not been able to co-ordinate diaries. Despite this, it has been very good just knowing that someone is there...it would have been good if we could have met but that hasn’t prevented us from being satisfied with the mentoring project” (Mentor 3/Interview 4).*

This mentee reflected on how it was best to use their own time to meet up:

*“I just make sure it’s 100 percent all in my own time now. And I think for my mentor...she’s still got quite a flexible diary so we can make that work” (Mentee 19/Interview 1).*

*“It could be that we just meet outside of work now...I can understand that work can't keep your social network going by giving you a couple of hours off” (Mentee 4/Interview 1).*

16 mentees made positive remarks about how they managed their time, with the majority (9 separate mentees) mentioning that managing their own diary had helped them to be as flexible as they can with meeting up:

*“(I look after my own diary)...That's easier. I think if I was on a shift I think it would be a bit more of a challenge. Especially if you work with a particular partner and you need to go out together to a beat or something, but I don't specifically work with any one person” (Mentee 17/Interview 3).*

*“I think we're quite lucky in this department, because we work strange hours and it's quite flexible working anyway...It's not been a barrier” (Mentee 21/Interview 4).*

Those mentees who managed their own diary (and who had a supportive line manager) overall seemed to make fewer responses about hindering workload and time issues.

## **Mentors**

In 86.11% of mentor interviews (n=36), time was discussed, with 54 out of 28 responses being

negative. More responses were made about the negative impact of time by mentors than were made by mentees. More than half of the mentors mentioned their own and their mentees workload meaning they had to cancel mentoring meetings. This mentor mentions commitment from both sides and time pressures:

*“The negative bit was for me about time, in that I actually wish I'd had more time to spend with my mentees... Some of that I could have made more effort around, some of it was about circumstances, and some of it was about their engagement” (Mentor 18/Interview 4).*

Another frequently discussed area here was the impact of working shifts, issues with part time working/family commitments and mentees commitment to keeping to meetings, as illustrated by these quotes:

*“Me working part-time and shifts - that's another thing that gets in the way. Plus for XX now she's got responsibilities of, like, when the overtime has got to be in and she's got deadlines” (Mentor 10/Interview 2).*

*“Mentee was late for second meeting – third meeting I went to mentee workplace. Not a big issue. Mentee relates that she needs a push to do things sometimes and I have seen this first hand. We are working on this” (Mentor 13/Interview 2).*

*“She cancelled a couple of meetings and she was late and just didn't seem really with it, but now she's fully with it, yes, she's loving it” (Mentor 6/Interview 2).*

28 positive responses were made about time mostly in relation to managing own diaries and being as flexible as possible with meeting up with their mentees.. For instance these 2 mentees said:

*“I've just put it in the diary as and when I want to, and the guy I work with is quite flexible now. So that's great. I manage my own diary, so as long as I account for where I am, I'm free to go... But I would still do it out of my time anyway, it's not a problem. But that's how she wants to work it” (Mentor 6/Interview 1).*

*“With the other two I have said I will flex around what they want. So I've offered them mornings ... one of them, obviously doing shifts, I've said come in after your shift, at the beginning of your shift, you come in when you can... So they're seeing me in their own time” (Mentor 18/Interview 3).*

A different mentor, working part-time and on shifts mentioned how working night shifts were a positive factor as they were quieter, and so more time was available to catch up with their mentees remotely:

*“I think you get into your own zone to be honest (with email), to be able to say what you want to say. That's why I do it on nights, because I've got no interruptions and I can think about what I want to say...It's not too bad on nights, it's not that busy” (Mentor 10/Interview 4).*

#### *8.3.1.6 Personal factors.*

### **Mentees**

In 56.25% of mentee interviews (n=18), personal factors were discussed, with 29 out of 38 responses being negative. Mentee's responses were made mainly in the area of external factors that they could not control that impacted on their mentoring. For instance; personal/family commitments (getting married, going on maternity leave and emigrating to Australia), sickness and disability restrictions. One mentee opened up by saying how her mentor had helped her articulate and share some deep personal factors:

*“It was the first time I'd seen her since I'd had XXX, and so I was telling her about what had happened and what had gone on and so we were both sat in a pub crying for the duration more or less. But she was the only person who I've felt that I could share it with and not think that she was going to make a judgment about me... So it was an outlet” (Mentee 21/Interview 3).*

In the following meeting, this mentee went on to reflect how the focus had changed over time towards more personal factors:

*“I think three or four meetings we’ve had. But the relationship changed very, very quickly. It started off as being purely about professional development, but by this fourth meeting it was almost all personal development, and that’s probably because of my own needs changing rather than it being how the relationship” (Mentee 21/Interview 3).*

However, this mentee discussed lack of focus over time, due to personal factors:

*“My mentoring has sort of taken a back burner recently, so ... I think I’ve just had things going on in my personal life and then I just haven’t really focused that much on the mentoring” (Mentee 16/Interview 3).*

Mentees also mentioned internal factors that had an impact on their engagement in mentoring which included personal lack of direction, motivation or focus and difficulties accepting help and support from others. This mentee recognised that she needed some challenge:

*“I wanted (mentoring) for a while, I just needed that support...That kick up the bum” (Mentee 23/Interview 1)*

Another mentee reflected on the barriers that she may have been putting up for herself in the organisation and how mentoring had been that opportunity for her to reflect on these:

*“You get some people that I think seem almost absorbed into our organisation and it becomes everything for them. Their friends are in the organisation and everything like that and I’ve never been that type of person and I’ve sometimes wondered if I’ve perhaps struggled because I almost haven’t accepted, wholeheartedly, the organisation... And so that’s why asking for a mentor has been difficult for me, but then to get one it was really helpful for me” (Mentee 2/Interview 1).*

In contrast, this mentee mentioned how luck and the love of a challenge had helped her to move on and up:

*"I definitely want to be at the top really - Chief Superintendent. I've wanted to be a Police Officer since I was nine years old, so everything I've done has been Police related. And I got promoted quite quickly and I've luckily had some really good contacts and been pushed and pushed and pushed and I love a challenge and my brain ticking, so yes, mentoring has been great...Yes, I've been very lucky...women and men have been very supportive. I have been extremely lucky" (Mentee 3/Interview 1).*

## **Mentors**

In 55.56% of mentor interviews (n=20), personal factors were discussed, with 27 out of 38 responses being negative. In this factor, mentors discussions tended to focus on mentees external personal factors (illness, bereavement, family commitments) hindering the mentoring sessions and not necessarily about their own internal or external personal factors. For instance, these two mentors observed some family factors that were impacting on the mentoring relationship and the mentees behaviour:

*"She's stuck on part time hours as well I think...but I think there's certain things that she could do, but it's just if she wants to do it really...Because she's got little children, on her own, it's hard. And she says she never gets a day off or anything like that" (Mentor 4/Interview 1).*

*"She had a lot of trouble with her family and her mother and mother-in-law. She's a Muslim and in quite a close-knit family... really work wasn't so much of an issue for this lady, it was stuff outside of work but I always feel that that impacts on the way in which you deal with people and behave inside of the workplace and it's worth getting these things sorted" (Mentor 5/Interview 2).*

Mentors also made responses about mentees commitment and ownership too, for example:

*"It's interesting, because when we meet up things are fine, we don't always have a really strong flow of conversation, but we've talked about things, they seem comfortable, but I also feel there's a little bit of sense sometimes around how much ownership they really want to take...And I think that might be down to them as an individual and how they operate, which is why I said I don't know if I've truly tapped into that or not" (Mentor 18/Interview 4).*

There were also some internal personal factors impacting on mentors too, in relation to their initial nerves and self confidence levels. This mentor mentioned nerves at the start:

*“I was nervous about my first mentee and now that's going and I've done two, I'm quite excited about the next one - even though she's an Inspector and I'm Police Staff. I don't know why, but I always put myself at a lower level than an Inspector, but they say on my grade it's the equivalent of Inspector grade in Police staff...I suppose that's me, putting myself lower than that rank” (Mentor 13/Interview 1).*

However, Mentor 2 referred to their recent promotion (from Officer to Sergeant) as boosting their confidence to mentor:

*“I think because I've passed my Sergeant's board, it's given me that extra confidence I think. I can do it; look I can prove that I've done it. 'I've been through a difficult time but I can help you get through it', sort of thing” (Mentor 2/Interview 1).*

#### 8.3.1.7 Similarity.

### **Mentees**

In 100% of mentee interviews (n=32), similarity was discussed, with overwhelmingly 63 out of 64 responses being positive. It seemed important for mentees to be similar in a variety of ways, including personal background:

*‘We're both Police staff, we both have a strong faith - although it's different. But that's come up in conversations because some of my extra-curricular activities and some of her extra-curricular activities are actually related to our faith. Another thing is music as well, because I'm a devotional singer and she plays certain musical instruments so that came up - "Oh wow! Ok. That's interesting". So there's some similarities’ (Mentee 17/Interview 1).*

approach:

*“Outwardly to all of my colleagues and to people on the streets I am very chatty and I'm very bubbly. And my mentor appears to be like that as well. So we're quite similar in that we'll smile a lot and talk a lot ...So we are similar in that I think we are both bubbly...And she seems very people-orientated and caring and I am quite the same as well. I will put my staff first...So in that respect I think we are very similar, I think she does understand where I'm coming from” (Mentee 7/Interview 1).*

and personality:

*“I feel now I've learned that I tend to trust people too much, you leave yourself vulnerable almost, because you talk to people and you trust them...I find her to be very similar in that way...So personality-wise, I would've thought is very similar... she's just perfect for how I would want, rather than someone very domineering, I don't like that, so she fits in perfectly” (Mentee 6/Interview 2).*

This mentee was surprised by the speed of the rapport building and the similarity between her and her mentor, even though they worked in different areas:

*“The rapport was built up very quickly and I was surprised at that because I didn't know XX at all and I wasn't sure that she was going to be the right mentor for me to be honest, because she wasn't in an area of business that I wanted to work towards. So, it was a surprise...when we had our first meeting she was able to relate to how I was feeling and she told me about similar experiences that she'd had...it was almost a personality match” (Mentee 21/Interview 4).*

Another mentee mentioned the similarity in job role being helpful, although examples of this were limited (as the difference in job roles were mentioned in the next section as helpful by many too):

*“I think we're quite similar in terms of our outlook and I think it's definitely helpful to me that she's Police staff and so am I, although I'm sure there would be benefits of having a Police Officer's perspective as well, personally I've found it quite helpful that she's Police staff” (Mentee 8/Interview 4).*

## Mentors

In 63.89% of mentor interviews (n=23), similarity was discussed, with 41 out of 43 responses being positive. It seemed important for mentors to be similar in a variety of ways, including personal background:

*“She’s a very modest individual and I can see evidence of myself really some years ago and it’s not something you’re comfortable with - playing a game - but eventually that’s what you’ve got to learn to do...There’s an affiliation there because I understand where she is at the moment because I’ve been there myself...We have similar personal backgrounds I would say too” (Mentor 3/Interview 1).*

family background:

*“I think with both of us having children, hers are a bit younger than mine, but both having small children I think does help really. I wouldn’t really particularly want to mentor somebody who is very, very career focused and was after promotion particularly, I just don’t have that mind-set myself really” (Mentor 5/Interview 1).*

and personality:

*“I do think that personalities are a huge part to the success of mentoring. Both Mentee X and myself are both relaxed and are willing to listen and share” (Mentor 2/Interview 2).*

This mentor discussed seeing herself in her mentee and so, was using mentoring as an opportunity to share her learning from the past to encourage more confidence in her mentee:

*“But I think we’re alike. We’re quite alike and I see things in her that perhaps I could have tended to have done before...maybe not pushed to go for things where I lacked a bit of confidence myself...So I do see myself and her as quite alike. No big differences...” (Mentor 11/Interview 2).*



This mentor summarised the useful reflection and learning that had come from a similar work background and from experiencing similar issues:

*"I'm finding it really, really challenging, but she's quite open to learning new stuff, mainly around self-confidence; speaking out during meetings when you've got a lot of people around...I've got exactly the same situation with the person I work with... ...there's a bit about self-confidence as well I think...And because we've kind of come from the same background, we've kind of been able to reflect on some of that and why we've left those jobs as well " (Mentor 6/Interview 3).*

However, this mentor reflected on whether similarities were always helpful:

*"My gut would probably say similarities may enhance the relationship, because does that go back to building rapport easier? But you may have similarities, not necessarily around your learning styles, but you may have other similarities that actually hinder that rapport" (Mentor 18/Interview 3).*

#### *8.3.1.8 Difference.*

### **Mentees**

Mentees made fewer responses about difference (n=24), than similarity but again responses made were mostly positive (20 out of 24) from within 18 interviews (56.25%). This mentee mentioned learning from someone with longer and different experiences:

*"She's got more service than me. I've got 13 in and she's got 20+ in, so she's got more service. Our experiences are different. I've diversified more as a PC. So in some ways there's a bit of a difference but it hasn't been a problem at all...it's more about the here and now to be honest" (Mentee 1/Interview 1).*

This mentee mentioned her initial concerns about the differences but then explained how this had increased her own self-awareness through mentoring:

*“She's got a lot more life experience than I have, so that helps, and it puts things into perspective, rather than thinking 'this is how I'm doing it', you get like a blinkered view don't you?...The only thing I was really worried about is she's not in the same profession, so if that would be an obstacle...but I've got more of an awareness now that there are other ways of being able to work and how to deal with certain things...And I think that's because she's in a different side of the organisation” (Mentee 12/Interview 1).*

These two mentees recognised the differences but hoped that she may become more similar to her mentor over time:

*“I think she comes across stronger and more confident than me...Which I'd actually like to be more like, so it's something to, you know, look up to” (Mentee 6/Interview 2).*

*“I think she's probably more determined than I am...I think about all she said she's doing and I think 'Oh, perhaps I should do a little bit more' you know...It sort of eggs you on a little bit” (Mentee 20/Interview 3).*

This mentee explained that she had learnt from a different style of working:

*“My mentor is so different from me and she's so different from a lot of other people I've worked with, it's just given me an experience of a different kind of style of working. And reminds me again that just because someone is different from me, doesn't mean that they're no good at their job. You know, we're equally mad” (Mentee 15/Interview 4).*

And building on this later, in the same interview the mentee reflected:

*“I was quite clear when I started that I was going to be a Sergeant and I was looking to get a Sergeant as a mentor and when I got a member of Police Staff I was like ... 'What's that going to give me?'...I now know that I can learn from anyone... I have learned a whole heap of other things from my mentor instead” (Mentee 15/Interview 4).*

However, not all responses were positive with one mentee saying her mentoring relationship had been less successful due to the work background differences:

*“The feedback from my mentor to me was that she didn't feel me being an Officer and she's Police staff, that she didn't really feel that she could help me progress any further”*  
(Mentee 8/Interview 4).

## **Mentors**

Similarly to mentees, mentors made fewer responses about difference (n=38), than similarity but again responses made were mostly positive (28 out of 38) from within 23 interviews (63.89%).

Positive responses included responses on difference in length of service:

*“I suppose I've learned that I have got things to offer. I've got eight years in the job, she's actually got more years in the job than I have, but my eight years are still quite valuable to share with somebody else, with the experiences that I've been through. Because that was a bit daunting when I knew she had more service than me. I was like, I've only got eight years, she's got 15, is she kind of going to look down because she's done more and think that my mentoring...It was different experiences, but we still had stuff to offer”*  
(Mentor 2/interview 1).

approach:

*“Very different...She's quite opinionated...So I've had to learn to be a bit more opinionated. It's taken me a long time to speak out I think, throughout my career so far, so I'm learning to do that a bit more now. But I actually feel quite comfortable. Even though we're quite different I feel we've actually got some kind of level ground”*  
(Mentor 6/Interview 1).

and style:

*“I would say we're quite opposite really. She's very, very quiet, but I think that's kind of why we get on, because we are so really, really opposite...For me it's quite good to see her perception on things”* (Mentor 16/Meeting 2).

This mentor expressed concerns about difference in job role at the start of the mentoring relationship:

*“I was initially worried because I thought well, how can I help her? ...I did panic at first because I thought ‘Ooh she’s a Policewoman and I don’t know anything about what they do’. I might’ve had this job for years but it’s a bit of a panic to start with”*  
(Mentor 4/Interview 1).

But in the final interview, reflected that there was much learning to be had from the different roles:

*“For me the positives were about learning, an opportunity to meet different people, again, and actually mentoring two Police Officers is good, because mentoring Police staff can get you complacent - because it’s your world and they’ve got the same world as you. So understanding different restrictions, different impacts for Police Officers is important”*  
(Mentor 18/Interview 4).

Interestingly, the all 10 negative responses about difference centred round the perceptions between the mix between Police Officer and Police Staff. This has also been discussed in the Selection and Matching section too. This mentor illustrates their concerns about mentoring those in different areas of the Police:

*“I prefer having civilian mentees rather than Police Officers, because... I personally see it as Police Officers are above me in the role, because I wouldn’t be in my role if there weren’t Police Officers. So when it’s civilian members of staff, I find it a lot easier and I’m more confident as well...If someone was aspiring to be a Sergeant or something like that, I am not the right person because I know nothing about that field. I do kind of like to stay in my comfort zone. Occasionally I’ll step out, but not very often. I don’t want the hassle.”*  
(Mentor 10/Interview 3)

In summary, Table 8.6 together with Table 8.7 and these accompanying quotes clearly show that mentoring is effected both positively and negatively by factors within and outside the mentors and mentees control. Managers seemed to be a key theme in terms of helping mentees and mentors,

together with Similarity and Difference. HR Challenges including responses on culture together with Organisational Changes, Time and Personal Factors were all considered to be mostly hindering factors by both mentees and mentors.

It seems clear from some of the quotations used that mentors and mentees were willing to find ways around manager and time issues but had obvious personal and organisational commitments and restrictions to contend with to make mentoring work.

### ***8.3.2 Mentee and mentor focus group findings.***

As previously mentioned, two mentee and two mentor focus groups were also carried out with mentees and mentors (at the separation/interview 3 and redefinition phase/interview 4) to discuss the results so far and to gather any additional views about their learning and moderating factors. Seven mentees attended the first focus group and five mentees attended the second one. 11 mentors attended the first focus group and four attended the second one.

Table 8.8 summarises all the mentee and mentor responses against the moderating factors and confirms some of the spread of mentee and mentor interview responses in relation to helpful and hindering factors.

All the responses were categorised into the aforementioned moderating factors and show that the majority of focus group responses focussed on HR challenges (30.11% of all mentee and mentor responses), managers (21.51%), organisational changes (17.20%) and time (17.20%). Mentees generally gave more responses than mentors in these four key moderating factors (except for organisational change) and made almost twice as many responses on managers than mentors (13 mentee responses to seven mentor responses). It was interesting to see that the responses were overwhelming negative by both parties for all factors, with over 87.50% of all mentees responses and 82.22% of all mentor responses as negative. This is contrary to Table 8.7 where manager responses for both mentee and mentor were primarily positive.

**Table 8.8** - Supporting information in relation to moderating factors

<b>Mentees/Mentors Moderating factors</b>	<b>MENTEES Responses from 1<sup>st</sup> &amp; 2<sup>nd</sup> focus groups together</b>	<b>+</b>	<b>-</b>	<b>MENTORS Responses from 1<sup>st</sup> &amp; 2<sup>nd</sup> focus groups together</b>	<b>+</b>	<b>-</b>	<b>TOTAL Mentee and Mentor responses</b>
Distance/Location of pairs	1 (2.08%)	0	1	2 (4.44%)	0	2	3 (3.23%)
HR challenges	16 (33.33%)	2	14	12 (26.67%)	2	10	28 (30.11%)
Managers	13 (27.08%)	2	11	7 (15.56%)	1	6	20 (21.51%)
Organisational changes	6 (12.5%)	1	5	10 (22.22%)	4	6	16 (17.20%)
Time	9 (18.75%)	0	9	7 (15.56%)	0	7	16 (17.20%)
Top-level management support	0	0	0	2 (4.44%)	0	2	2 (2.15%)
Personal factors	1 (2.08%)	0	1	3 (6.67%)	0	3	4 (4.30%)
Difference	2 (4.18%)	1	1	2 (4.44%)	1	1	4 (4.30%)
<b>TOTAL no. of mentee/mentor responses</b>	<b>48</b>	<b>6 (12.5%)</b>	<b>42 (87.5%)</b>	<b>45</b>	<b>8 (17.8%)</b>	<b>37 (82.2%)</b>	<b>93</b>

*Note – highlighted area shows most mentioned*

The responses in this table confirm six out of the eight key moderating factors, with no responses made by either party on effective matching strategy nor similarity. Two additional factors were mentioned; ‘Distance/Location of Pairs’ and ‘Top-level Management Support’, which did feature in Table 8.8 but did not make the key eight moderating factors, in the earlier discussion. Some additional quotations in relation to the four most mentioned moderating factors, from the focus groups, will be discussed briefly in this next section.

### 8.3.2.1 HR Challenges.

#### Mentees

Lack of development and promotional opportunities was the key theme discussed by mentees within the focus groups, with two mentees saying:

*“On a practical level I kind of wanted to talk to someone who might be able to tell me about different career options and stuff within the Police and I found that there aren't any...my mentor can empathise with the way things are, but practically there's not a lot that we can do” (Mentee 6/Focus Group 1).*

*“I think the ideas are there, but the opportunities aren't there...We're sick of talking about the change programme, you want it to be a different environment where you don't talk about something and feel down, you want to be positive, so try to avoid it” (Mentee 2/Focus Group 2).*

A different mentee felt that mentees/mentors may be using the change programme as an excuse:

*“It frustrates me. I just think that people use it too easily as an excuse not to do anything sometimes... yes there are situations where you can't move because the role that you're doing is being looked at or whatever, but I think it's just too easy to sit back and use as an excuse for everything” (Mentee 15/Focus Group 2).*

## **Mentors**

Mentors were finding the current climate unhelpful for mentoring too, with this mentor saying how it was affecting the tone of their mentoring interviews:

*“Limited opportunities for mentees; stalemate for time being...Like to leave Interview on a high, not able to last time as mentee so demotivated” (Mentor 14/Focus group 1).*

This mentor wondered whether the results of mentoring would have been different if the change programme had not been happening:

*“Without the change programme, I think mentoring results would have been different. Once a week used to be up to 10 jobs on the intranet. Finding it hard that mentees can't get to where they want to get” (Mentor 10/Focus group 1).*

However, another mentor suggested that lack of opportunity had enhanced the mentoring meetings:

*“Because the promotion opportunities have been reduced, we've had those real honest conversations and that person has actually said "I don't want to go for it because I realise that my motives and intentions for going for it are different to what they should be”*  
(Mentor 16/Focus Group 2).

#### 8.3.2.2 Managers.

### **Mentees**

Despite the fact that the majority of responses by both mentees and mentors in the interviews were supportive about their managers, in the focus groups the feedback was very much negative. With these two mentees saying:

*“I've had quite a lot of changes in supervision, so they haven't always been there, not just for me, but for the team, because they're new to the team and getting to know them and learning the job. So the mentoring has almost been the constant thing”*  
(Mentee 10/Focus Group 1).

*“You think your manager should know so they can recognise it or see that you're doing these extra things. Other people though, have said that their manager has been extremely supportive...some managers know more about the benefits of it than others, I guess”*  
(Mentee 4/Focus Group 1).

Other responses centred on their manager not being interested but not necessarily hindering their mentoring relationships, with this mentee directly quoting her manager:

*“My management tend to let me do whatever I want, but my manager said to me the other day when I was talking about coming here, ‘It's all very well doing all these schemes, but they're going to have stop at some point because where is it going to go? - There's no end goal, you can't move up, there are no jobs to apply for, so what's the point in doing it?’*  
(Mentee 14/Focus Group 2).



A different mentee, mentioned they felt valued and supported by their manager:

*“It's being valued, I actually feel valued by it. A lot of people feel that they're not valued at all...I told her (my Manager) I'd got a mentor and the first thing she said to me was "Who is it?" (Mentee 20/Focus Group 1)*

## **Mentors**

Mentors made similarly negative responses about their managers, with mentors saying:

*“We have no support from Line Managers” (Mentor 6/Focus group 1).*

*“Managers not told about releasing us” (Mentor 4/Focus group 1).*

*“There's very little support from my level up. You do everything you can for your own staff, you try to deal with something that has to be dealt with by another level, you're banging your head against a brick wall most of the time” (Mentor 7/Focus group 2).*

A different mentor mentioned their manager's initial support and then disinterest but did not necessarily view this as a hindrance to the mentoring scheme:

*“In the first instance when I said to my boss that I was doing this mentoring, it was 'Ooh that's great! That will be good on your CV and all the rest of it.'...I think it was a case of ok, you've told me now, get on and do it and just don't tell me, don't bother me with it anymore” (Mentor 6/Focus group 2).*

### **8.3.2.3 Organisational changes.**

## **Mentees**

Only a small number of responses were made about organisational changes by mentees, with one mentee saying that the mentoring has not been as successful as it might have been because:

*“The vast majority of people I speak to aren't in a good place at the moment. And that's no reflection on the individuals (or mentoring) concerned; it's the change within the organisation, the uncertainty, amongst Officers and staff” (Mentee 15/Focus Group 2)*

A different mentee made the point that the focus on organisational changes had an impact on people's ability to think about themselves inside and outside of mentoring:

*“I think because people are on that sausage factory, that you just forget to look at yourself and your own development. And that's certainly what's happened to me. I'm not using it as an excuse, we're caught up in it, it's a big thing that's happening to the organisation and I'll accept that wholeheartedly” (Mentee 14/Focus Group 2).*

## **Mentors**

Mentors, as in the HR challenges section, mentioned the difficulties that the current climate created for mentoring:

*“The current climate; we can't make it any better. We can't leave them on that high. It's not something that we can package up nicely” (Mentor 13/Focus group 1).*

However, another mentor made the point that change was not going away any time soon:

*“Need to recognise that this change programme is a four year programme, not use as an excuse” (Mentor 5/Focus group 1).*

A different mentor in focus group 2 agreed that the changes needed to be accepted but still had an impact:

*“It's an acceptance thing isn't it? This is the way things are at the moment, but when you're trying to help someone else it's quite frustrating, because you don't know what else to do to make it better for them” (Mentor 19/Focus group 2).*

Other mentors were more positive about the change programme, for example this mentor said:

*“I think it can be quite uplifting actually, doing a mentoring session... you can really encourage people to look at what they want to do and look at lateral development, or developing new skills in things outside of work. So, I think in some ways it's the right time to be doing this really” (Mentor 18/Focus group 2).*

#### 8.3.2.4 Time.

All responses within the focus groups were negative in this factor.

### **Mentees**

Mentees mentioned the negative impact of their workload, and the impact of mentor's workload and busy diaries too:

*“Mentors' free time is an issue - she's having to keep re-arranging appointments. It's really frustrating isn't it, as mentees, if you've prepared, you're looking forward to it, it's good timing, and then all of a sudden” (Mentee 21/Focus Group 2).*

Mentees also mentioned having to give up their own time to meet, but stated they were willing to do this as they saw the benefits:

*“I've always treated my mentoring sessions as a break from the workload, I do about half-an-hour of it in my work time and then the rest of it is in my own time, because I'm not given time to go, it's my lunch hour when I go. But to me, it's been essential” (Mentee 16/Focus group 1).*

### **Mentors**

Mentors mentioned workload and diaries as hindering factors too:

*“Workload; opportunities not advertised yet, so very busy doing more than one role. Also difficult getting time to be with the mentee” (Mentor 1/Focus group 1).*

*“The difficulty in maintaining our scheduled interviews due to staff shortages”  
(Mentor 4/Focus group 1).*

Mentors also mentioned mentee workload and differing working practices too:

*“Mentees working patterns” (Mentor 6/Focus group 1).*

#### **8.4 Result of addressing research question 4: *How do these moderating factors change over time for both parties within the CEPF?***

The final research question was aimed at understanding how the key moderating factors for both parties within the CEPF mentoring relationships had changed over time. Findings from the mentee and mentor interviews will be displayed in this next table.

As previously mentioned, the four sets of researcher interviews were deliberately set up to coincide roughly with the four phases of the mentoring lifecycle (Kram, 1988). For instance, interview 1; at the end of the initiation phase (3 month point), interview 2; at the end of the cultivation phase (6 month point), interview 3; at the end of the separation phase (9 month point), interview 4; at the end of the redefinition phase (12 month point). This detail and the response rates by mentee and mentor, within these four phases together with the key moderating factors are displayed in Table 8.9 and 8.10.

This table shows that for mentees and mentors together, the initiation phase/interview 1 had the most responses (230 total responses) and this was also the phase with the most positive mentee and mentor responses overall. For the first two phases/interviews together, mentees and mentors showed more positive responses outweighing or equalling negative ones but for both parties in the separation and definition phase (the later interviews), the responses became predominantly negative.

**Table 8.9** - Categorisation of the collected CEPF mentee positive and negative responses on the eight key moderating factors against Kram's (1988) four mentoring phases

MENTEES	Phases/ Moderating factors	Initiation/ Interview 1		Cultivation / Interview 2		Separation / Interview 3		Redefinition/ Interview 4		Total No. of Responses	
<b>Responses</b>		15		3		4		13		35	
<b>Positive /Negative</b>	HR Challenges	+	-	+	-	+	-	+	-	+	-
		7	8	0	3	3	1	0	13	10	25
		23		3		8		9		43	
<b>Positive /Negative</b>	Managers	+	-	+	-	+	-	+	-	+	-
		18	5	3	0	4	4	3	6	28	15
		13		4		12		8		37	
<b>Positive /Negative</b>	Effective matching strategy	+	-	+	-	+	-	+	-	+	-
		13	0	4	0	7	5	6	2	30	7
		14		14		17		13		58	
<b>Positive /Negative</b>	Organisational Changes	+	-	+	-	+	-	+	-	+	-
		3	11	1	13	4	13	5	8	13	45
		21		11		11		11		54	
<b>Positive /Negative</b>	Time	+	-	+	-	+	-	+	-	+	-
		7	14	2	9	4	7	3	8	16	38
		13		2		11		12		38	
<b>Positive /Negative</b>	Personal Factors	+	-	+	-	+	-	+	-	+	-
		3	10	0	2	3	8	3	9	9	29
		32		14		9		9		64	
<b>Positive /Negative</b>	Similarity	+	-	+	-	+	-	+	-	+	-
		32	0	14	0	8	1	9	0	63	1
		12		3		3		6		24	
<b>Positive /Negative</b>	Difference	+	-	+	-	+	-	+	-	+	-
		11	1	3	0	3	0	3	3	20	4
	<b>Total mentee responses by interview</b>	143		54		75		81		353	
<b>Positive /Negative</b>	<b>Total mentee positive/negative responses</b>	+	-	+	-	+	-	+	-	+	-
		94	49	27	27	36	39	32	49	189	164

This table shows that for mentees the majority of responses (143 out of 353 or 40.51% of all mentee responses) were made in the first interview/phase 1 and so for all the top eight moderating factors responses reduced over time. Responses did not reduce steadily, except for time and similarity, but many fluctuated between phase 2 and 3. For instance, organisational changes increased in phase 3 but reduced again in phase 4. The most dramatic reduction over time comes from within managers (phase 1; 23 responses and phase 4; 9) and similarity (phase 1; 32 responses and phase 4; 9). The phase with the least amount of responses for mentees was the cultivation phase/phase 2. In terms of positive and negative changes over time for mentees, HR challenges maintained primarily negative responses throughout all four phases (except for phase 3), together with organisational changes, time and personal factors. Effective matching strategy, similarity and

difference remained primarily positive throughout for mentees with managers following the same pattern except for phase 4, where there were twice as many negative responses (albeit a small number.) Interestingly for mentees, the majority of responses over all eight moderating factors were positive in the first phase, equal in the second phases and then switched to predominantly negative in the final two phases.

**Table 8.10** - Categorisation of the collected CEPF mentor positive and negative responses on the eight key moderating factors against Kram's (1988) four mentoring phases

MENTORS	Phases/ Moderating factors	Initiation/ Interview 1		Cultivation / Interview 2		Separation / Interview 3		Redefinition/ Interview 4		Total No. of Responses	
Responses		2		6		18		15		41	
Positive /Negative	HR Challenges	+	-	+	-	+	-	+	-	+	-
		0	2	1	5	2	16	2	13	5	36
Positive /Negative	Managers	14		6		9		10		39	
		+	-	+	-	+	-	+	-	+	-
		7	7	5	1	6	3	8	2	26	13
Positive /Negative	Effective matching strategy	7		4		13		10		34	
		+	-	+	-	+	-	+	-	+	-
		3	4	2	2	3	10	3	7	11	23
Positive /Negative	Organisational Changes	5		19		26		29		79	
		+	-	+	-	+	-	+	-	+	-
		1	4	3	16	7	19	10	19	21	58
Positive /Negative	Time	20		15		18		29		82	
		+	-	+	-	+	-	+	-	+	-
		6	14	7	8	6	12	9	20	28	54
Positive /Negative	Personal Factors	10		6		12		10		38	
		+	-	+	-	+	-	+	-	+	-
		3	7	1	5	2	10	5	5	11	27
Positive /Negative	Similarity	17		12		12		2		43	
		+	-	+	-	+	-	+	-	+	-
		17	0	12	0	11	1	1	1	41	2
Positive /Negative	Difference	12		14		7		5		38	
		+	-	+	-	+	-	+	-	+	-
		7	5	13	1	5	2	3	2	28	10
	Total mentor responses by interview	87		82		115		110		394	
Positive /Negative	Total mentor positive/negative responses	+	-	+	-	+	-	+	-	+	-
		44	43	44	38	42	73	41	69	171	223
Overall totals	Mentees/mentors responses together	230		136		190		191		747	
Positive /Negative		138	92	71	65	78	112	73	118	360	387

For mentors, this Table 8.10 shows that the majority of responses (115 out of 394 or 29.19% of all mentor responses) were made at the separation phase/interview 3 with some factors increasing and other reducing over all four phases. Managers, similarity and difference responses reduced from

start to finish but HR challenges, effective matching strategy, organisational changes and time increased between phase 1 and phase 4. Personal factors started and ended with the same number of responses but fluctuated throughout. The most dramatic increase of responses over time came from the organisational changes factor (phase 1; 5 responses and phase 4; 29) and for reduction in responses over time; similarity (phase 1; 17 responses and phase 4; 2). The phase with the least amount of responses for mentors was the cultivation phase/phase 2. In terms of positive and negative changes over time for mentors, HR challenges maintained primarily negative responses throughout as did effective matching strategy, organisational changes, time and personal factors. Similarity and difference remained primarily positive throughout all four phases for mentees with managers following the same pattern except for phase 1, where there was an equal number of positive and negative responses. Interestingly for mentors, the majority of responses over all eight moderating factors were positive in the first two phases but switched to predominantly negative in the second two phases.

In short, with mentee and mentor responses altogether, over time responses switched from predominantly positive in phase 1 and 2 to predominantly negative in phase 3 and 4. The biggest contribution to the positive responses for both parties in the first two phases came from managers, similarity and difference. The main contributors to the negative responses in the final two phases for both parties were organisational changes, time and personal factors.

### **8.5 Synthesis of the CEPF study findings**

These findings show that both CEPF mentees and mentors are learning within all four learning domains; cognitive, skill-based, affective-related and through social networks, during their formal mentoring relationships. The scope and volume of responses varied between the two parties. For mentees and mentors, the majority of their learning was within the affective-related domain; building an increased self-awareness and confidence for both parties. The least amount of learning

for both parties was within social networks. Over the mentoring cycle, overall mentee and mentors responses were greatest about their learning in the first and final phases of the mentoring lifecycle. Mentees and mentors cited similar key moderating factors that were helping to facilitate their mentoring relationships; managers, similarity and difference but mentioned that HR challenges, organisational changes, time and personal factors were similar hindering factors. However, it was interesting to note that during the focus groups, comments from both parties were predominantly negative about managers. Mentees also mentioned that the matching strategy was facilitating but the mentors felt this was hindering. Over the mentoring cycle, mentees and mentors comments tended to shift from predominantly positive in the early phases to increasingly more negative in the latter phases.

The next chapter will work through the same four research questions and display the information from the focus groups in a similar way, for the North England Police Force (NEPF).



## **Chapter 9 - Results of the North England Police Force (NEPF) Study**

The third case study organisation was a North England Police Force (NEPF) who launched a formal mentoring programme to support the progression of high potential employees within the organisation, who did not have access to the Police High Potential Development Scheme (HPDS). This NEPF mentoring scheme started in 2012 with 12 trained mentors creating 18 dyads. Three additional formal mentoring programmes followed the successful pilot starting in 2013 (10 mentors and 12 mentees), in 2014 (10 mentors and 10 mentees) and 2014/2015 (10 mentors and 10 mentees), creating four mentoring cohort groups in total. Mentors were a mixture of senior, experienced women and men from at least two ranks higher than the mentees. Mentees were both women and men.

As previously discussed in the methodology chapter, information was gathered differently from this NEPF group; interviews were not used. Instead, once the NEPF formal mentoring relationships had started, three focus groups were carried out with mentees and mentors every 3-4 months for each cohort group, making an overall total of 12 focus groups. In total, 126 mentees (84% of all mentees) and 82 mentors (65% of all mentors) contributed. Some mentees and mentors came to more than one focus group, within their cohort group. A breakdown of mentee and mentor numbers per focus group can be seen in Appendix IV.

All mentees and mentors were invited to all focus groups and these were arranged by the Mentoring Scheme Co-ordinator within the NEPF. Those who attended the focus groups were those who were able to make the focus group sessions and were not directly selected. Each focus group lasted up to one and a half hours each. As previously explained in the methodology chapter, these focus groups were carried out over a 9-month period at three points to coincide roughly with a condensed version of the four phases of the mentoring lifecycle (Kram, 1988). For instance, focus group 1; at the end of the initiation phase/start of the cultivation phase (3 month point), focus group 2; at the end of the cultivation phase/start of the separation phase (6 month point), focus group 3; at the end of the separation phase/start of the redefinition phase (9 month point). This was a slightly

shorter timescale than the other two formal mentoring programmes, as the NHS and CEPF programmes were set for 12 months.

### **9.1 Result of addressing research question 1: *What do mentees and mentors perceive they are learning during their formal mentoring relationships within the NEPF?***

As before, the first research question was aimed at understanding what both parties perceived they were learning as a result of their NEPF mentoring relationships. Findings from the mentee and mentor focus groups will be displayed in this section.

#### **9.1.1 *Mentee and mentor focus group findings.***

The content of the 12 focus groups, made up of 126 mentee and 82 mentors was coded, categorised and sorted through NVIVO 9 to identify the number of responses made that related specifically to the four theoretical learning domains proposed by Wanberg et al (2003) and used by Hezlett (2005), namely cognitive, skills-based, affective-related and social networks.

The results of this categorisation is summarised into Table 9.1. This table shows the respective number of responses made by both NEPF mentees and mentors during the focus groups in relation to the four learning domains. As well as showing number of responses and percentage of the overall total responses by learning domain, the 'no. of sources' row indicates how many mentee or mentor focus groups contained these responses and the percentage response rate for each learning domain overall.

This table demonstrates that although all four domains were discussed during the interviews with both mentees and mentors, the number of focus groups these were mentioned in and the volume of responses varied significantly across the four learning domains.

**Table 9.1** - Categorisation of the collected NEPF mentee and mentor responses against Wanberg et al.'s (2003) four learning domains

<b>Mentee/Mentor</b>	<b>Sources/ Responses</b>	<b>Cognitive learning</b>	<b>Skill- based learning</b>	<b>Affective- related learning</b>	<b>Social networks learning</b>	<b>Total No. of Responses</b>
<b>No. of mentee focus groups (n=12)</b>	No. of sources	11 (91.67%)	12 (100%)	11 (91.67%)	11 (91.67%)	-
	No. of responses	54 (28.73%)	38 (20.21%)	54 (28.72%)	42 (22.34%)	<b>188 (70.68%)</b>
<b>No. of mentor focus groups (n=12)</b>	No. of sources	11 (91.67%)	7 (58.33%)	8 (66.67%)	7 (58.33%)	-
	No. of responses	32 (41.03%)	11 (14.10%)	22 (28.21%)	13 (16.66%)	<b>78 (29.32%)</b>
<b>Total mentee and mentor focus groups (n=24)</b>	Total No. of responses	86 (32.33%)	49 (18.42%)	76 (28.57%)	55 (20.68%)	<b>266</b>

This table shows that mentees made twice as many responses (110 more responses) as mentors, across all four domains; 70% of the overall responses in this table. For the mentees, learning was mentioned more regularly (n=54) in the cognitive and affective-related learning domain, in all but one mentee focus group (91.67%) and both accounted for just over half of the total mentee responses (57.45%). Social networks were the next most mentioned learning domain (n=42) and was discussed in 11 out of 12 focus groups. Responses for skill-based learning were mentioned in 100% of the focus groups (n=12) but had the least amount of responses (38 responses).

For mentors, learning was mentioned most regularly (n=32) in the cognitive learning domain where 41.03% of the total responses made, followed by 28.21% (22 of 78) of the responses in the affective-related learning domain. Social networks were the next most mentioned learning domain (n=13) but was only discussed in just over half (58.33%) of the focus groups as was skill-based learning with the smallest number of comments; 11. There were no learning domains commented on within all mentor focus groups (as with mentees and skill-based learning) but the majority of mentor focus groups (91.67%) did have skill based responses included.

In short, this table shows that the combined total number of responses made by the mentees' and mentors' suggests that most of the learning that had taken place within these dyadic formal

mentoring relationships was in the cognitive and affective-related learning domain, and the least learning was in the skill-based domain.

Appendix XIII shows a selection of NEPF mentee and mentor responses in relation to all four learning domains, across all three sets of focus groups. Key themes for mentees are illustrated: cognitive learning in relation to a fresh outlook, a wider perspective and learning about development opportunities: skill-based in relation to goal setting, problem solving, leadership/management skills, emotional intelligence, reflection, and communication skills: affective-related learning in relation to improved confidence, drive/motivation and attitude to self and others: social networks in relation to new contacts. Key themes for mentors are also illustrated: cognitive learning in relation to increased knowledge of their mentees and new insights into mentoring: skill-based in relation to reflection and listening skills: affective-related learning in relation improved confidence about mentoring: social networks in relation to future connections.

In summary, all four key learning domains were discussed by both mentees and mentors, within the NEPF case study organisation. Some areas were more commonly mentioned than others (cognitive and affective-related) but it was clear that both parties learnt across the four domains, with mentees reporting over twice as much learning than mentors.

## **9.2 Result of addressing research question 2: *How does the learning change over time for both parties, within the NEPF?***

The second research question was aimed at understanding how the learning for both parties within the NEPF mentoring relationships had changed over time. Findings from the mentee and mentor focus groups will be displayed in this next section.

### *9.2.1 Learning over the different phases of the mentoring cycle.*

As previously mentioned, the NEPF focus groups were carried out over a 9-month period at three points to coincide roughly with the four phases of the mentoring lifecycle (Kram, 1988). For instance, focus group 1; at the end of the initiation phase/start of the cultivation phase (3 month point), focus group 2; at the end of the cultivation phase/start of the separation phase (6 month point), focus group 3; at the end of the separation phase/start of the redefinition phase (9 month point). These four phases have been condensed into three due to the slightly shorter timescale, as the NEPF formal mentoring programme was set for 9 months only. (The NHS and CEPF were set as 12 month programmes.) The response rates by mentees and mentors from the 12 focus groups in relation to the four learning domains across the condensed four mentoring lifecycle phases are displayed in Table 9.2. The percentage response rate has been added too, to show how often these domains had been mentioned by the two parties.

This Table 9.2 shows that throughout the beginning, middle and end phases of the formal mentoring programme, all four learning domains were mentioned by both mentors and mentees, but the frequency of mention varied across the different phases of the mentoring lifecycle. This table confirms that mentees perceived that they had gained more learning overall than mentors within each phrase of the mentoring lifecycle, particularly in the final phases/last focus groups (mentees made 50 more responses than mentors) and particularly within the cognitive and affective-related learning domains.

More specifically this table shows that for mentees, cognitive learning dominated the discussions in the first focus groups (24 responses out of 58; 41.38% of responses), then cognitive and affective-related dominated together in focus groups 2 (16 responses each) but affective-related dominated the final/third focus groups with 27 responses; the highest number of responses in any set of focus groups for mentees.

**Table 9.2** - Categorisation of the collected NEPF mentee/mentor responses on the four learning domains against a condensed version of Kram's (1988) four mentoring phases

<b>Mentee/ Mentor</b>	<b>Phases/ Learning domains</b>	<b>Initiation/ Cultivation Focus Group 1</b>	<b>Cultivation/ Separation Focus group 2</b>	<b>Separation/ Redefinition Focus group 3</b>	<b>Total No. of Responses</b>
<b>Mentees</b>	Cognitive	24 (44.44%)	16 (29.63%)	14 (25.93%)	54 (28.72%)
	Skill-based	11 (28.95%)	10 (26.32%)	17 (44.73%)	38 (20.21%)
	Affective-related	13 (24.07%)	14 (25.93%)	27 (50%)	54 (28.73%)
	Social networks	10 (23.80%)	16 (38.10%)	16 (38.10%)	42 (22.34%)
	<b>Total mentee responses:</b>	<b>58 (30.85%)</b>	<b>56 (29.79%)</b>	<b>74 (39.36%)</b>	<b>188 (70.68%)</b>
<b>Mentors</b>	Cognitive	10 (31.24%)	11 (34.38%)	11 (34.38%)	32 (41.03%)
	Skill-based	3 (27.27%)	7 (63.64%)	1 (9.09%)	11 (14.10%)
	Affective-related	3 (13.64%)	10 (45.45%)	9 (40.91%)	22 (28.21%)
	Social networks	1 (7.69%)	9 (69.23%)	3 (23.08%)	13 (16.67%)
	<b>Total mentor responses:</b>	<b>17 (21.79%)</b>	<b>37 (47.44%)</b>	<b>24 (30.77%)</b>	<b>78 (29.32%)</b>
<b>Overall total</b>	<b>Mentees/mentors responses together</b>	<b>75 (28.20%)</b>	<b>93 (34.96%)</b>	<b>98 (36.84%)</b>	<b>266</b>

This table also shows that for mentees, the total responses from all four learning domains decreased very slightly from the first focus groups to the second ones but in the final focus groups the responses ended 14 responses higher than the start. The majority of responses overall for mentees were in the final focus groups. This was the same pattern for the skill-based domain, again starting off with a higher response rate and reducing and then increasing in the final focus groups but not for cognitive responses which reduced over time or the affective-related and social network domain, where responses increased over time.

It seems clear from Table 9.2 that learning is greatest at the end for mentees (separation/definition phases) and the middle for mentors (cultivation/separation phases). However, when the mentee and mentor responses have been put together, this table shows that highest number of responses have been made in the final focus groups overall (but this has been skewed by the high number of

affective-related responses made by the mentees in the third focus groups).

### ***9.2.2 Perceived personal change during and at the end of the mentoring lifecycle.***

As part of each of the NEPF focus groups, there was one final question where mentees and mentors were asked what they felt had changed over time, for them personally. The findings are displayed in Table 9.3 and 9.4 and split by mentee and mentor between these three sets of focus groups. As with the two previous case studies, confidence (highlighted in red) and friendship (highlighted in blue) have been highlighted but were not significant factors in the discussion about changes by both mentees and mentors for the NEPF.

**Table 9.3** - Perceived changes personally experienced by mentees over time

<b>Initiation/Cultivation phase Focus Group 1</b>	<b>Cultivation/Separation phase Focus group 2</b>	<b>Separation/Redefinition phase Focus group 3</b>
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Change in focus to wider needs</li> <li>• Seeing opportunities for development i.e. courses</li> <li>• Was sceptical about the officer/staff very different points of view and mentors perception of this but not worried about this now</li> <li>• Closing previous/past experiences, learning from them and encouraging different thinking</li> <li>• Vast range of things already covered/steady progress</li> <li>• Realise there is no magic answer, it's about your ideas</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Significance of learning changes over time</li> <li>• Now starting to arrange own interviews</li> <li>• More focussed on what I want to achieve</li> <li>• Thinking outside the box</li> <li>• Had a nice chat and a cheese toastie!</li> <li>• Looking at things in a more critical way</li> <li>• <b>Improving my confidence</b></li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Had a 'light bulb' moment within a mentoring Interview. We can become insular/keep to what we know. Now know more about what happens elsewhere and why. Seems less barriers in the way, especially between Officer and Staff roles.</li> <li>• <u>Got a friend out of it</u></li> <li>• 'Good to see that mentors are human beings and mine is a nice bloke'</li> <li>• Being pushed towards other opportunities and out of my comfort zone</li> </ul>

## **Mentees**

Within Table 9.3, mentees seem to emphasise early on the wider perspective and knowledge of opportunities (wider needs, seeing opportunities) linked to the cognitive learning domain, but throughout and later seem to emphasise an increased focus (more focus on what want to achieve, being more critical) and a different way of thinking about doing things (arranging own interviews, less barriers, enjoying the push) linked to the affective-related domain. Nothing is directly mentioned about skill-based learning or social networks by mentees and over time, the majority of mentee responses seem to relate to the affective-related domain (closing previous experiences, improvement in confidence, light bulb moment.)

## **Mentors**

Table 9.4 shows that mentors responses are mostly connected to movement and change in relation to skill-based and affective-related learning for their mentees including mentees now applying for new job roles, getting Acting positions and lateral development as well as mentees achieving their action plans, developing a more positive attitude and doing things differently. Little is mentioned by mentors about what has changed for them personally as mentors, except a small number of skill-based and cognitive learning related responses on learning to lead less when mentoring (focus group 1), helping to refine skills (focus group 2) and now having a better knowledge about expectations. Nothing is mentioned by mentors here about an improved wider perspective linked to the cognitive learning domain nor social networks, which are both mentioned earlier on in the focus groups.



**Table 9.4** - Perceived changes personally experienced by mentors over time as a result of the mentoring

Initiation/Cultivation phase Focus Group 1	Cultivation/Separation phase Focus group 2	Separation/Redefinition phase Focus group 3
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Seeing movement; mentee has 2 CPDs – one for development in their role and the other for their career</li> <li>• Job opportunity came up; mentee applied/experience of applying</li> <li>• Seeing my mentee achieve points on their action plan</li> <li>• Hopefully changing mentees view on management and leadership</li> <li>• My mentee commenced acting post</li> <li>• I can see change (not always promotion but lateral development)</li> <li>• Mentees doing the ‘homework’ set (don’t have to but they do!)</li> <li>• Different phases have become clearer as progressed through mentoring i.e. doing more leading at the start, less so now</li> <li>• Initially unsure but better relationship now from being open and honest</li> <li>• ‘Different in a good way’</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• <b>Both mentees significantly increased self-confidence</b></li> <li>• Increased acceptance of change/dealing with uncertainty</li> <li>• Developing trust</li> <li>• Commitment</li> <li>• Seen improvements; mentees doing different things. Mentee wants promotion/driven towards getting ready for this.</li> <li>• Had a crisis text from mentee – showed that the trust is there. Was able to give reassurance and straightforward feedback. Could be a ‘turning point.’</li> <li>• Good to see changes in both personal and workplace aspects i.e. the light comes on</li> <li>• Helping to refine own skills in a safe relationship (will make self better in own role and to give better contribution to the organisation)</li> <li>• More positive attitude in the workplace</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• <u>Built up strong relationship/feel attachment to the mentee</u></li> <li>• Enjoyed the challenge stage (most enjoyable part)</li> <li>• Both mentees now Acting Sergeants (have seen their courage/battles/they are reaching out to what they want to do)</li> <li>• Mentoring is a two-way street</li> <li>• We’re mentors because we want to do it. We care. As new to mentoring, put pressure on ourselves to get it right, but with next new mentee it will be easier, as know a bit more what to expect/reassured about our own skills a bit more</li> <li>• Moved from the ‘why’ to the ‘how’</li> <li>• Mentee recognising for self</li> <li>• Seeing aspirational effort; good to see other perspectives and look at the effort people are willing to put in</li> </ul>

### **9.3 Result of addressing research question 3: *What are the factors that moderate mentee and mentor learning during their formal mentoring relationships within the NEPF?***

The third research question was aimed at understanding what both parties perceived had influenced their learning within their NEPF mentoring relationships. Findings from the mentee and mentor focus groups will be displayed in this next section.

#### **9.3.1 *Mentee and mentor focus group findings.***

Throughout all the NEPF focus groups, all mentees and mentors were asked to describe the factors (if any) that they felt had been facilitating or hindering their respective mentoring relationships. These were then coded, categorised and sorted for both mentee and mentor against Hegstad and Wentling's (2005) facilitating and hindering moderators. As mentioned before, their 'Design/structure of process' and 'Design/development issues' factors have been merged as one, as have 'effective, ongoing communication' and 'communication difficulties.' Also, their 'participant satisfaction and commitment' factor has not been included, as all mentees and mentors were asked to rate their satisfaction with mentoring and this was rated between 7 to 10 out of 10, so it is assumed that those responded were satisfied. Four additional factors were added due to the volume of responses made by mentees and mentors; difference, other relationships, personal factors and similarity. Subsequently, all these responses were then divided depending on whether they were positively described (facilitating factors) or negatively described (hindering factors) and can be seen in Table 9.5.

Table 9.5 shows that at least one comment was made by mentees and/or mentors that related to 8 out of the 20 moderating factors only, of which four were from the original Hegstad and Wentling moderating factors, and four were the new factors. No responses were made by either the mentees or mentors in relation to 12 of Hegstad and Wentling's moderating factors.

As can be seen in this Table, seven out of the 8 moderating factors had responses from both mentees and mentors (only mentees commented on distance/location of pairs.) Mentees made more responses than mentors in three of the jointly mentioned factors; 'Management Priority' (now known as managers), 'Time Constraints' (now known as time) and 'Other Relationships' and mentors made more responses in three too; 'Personal Factors', 'Similarity' and 'Difference', with one factor equal in responses; 'Human Resource Challenges' (known now as HR Challenges). Mentees made 15 more responses than mentors; 91 mentee responses and mentors 76 responses in total. It is interesting to note too, that mentees and mentors made more negative responses than positive ones (95 negative and 72 positive responses) with mentee responses overall being 60.44% negative and mentors 52.63% negative.

This table shows that not all mentee and mentor focus groups contributed to the discussion about each facilitating and hindering factor, over time; sources only show up to 9 out of 12 focus groups or less were included. For mentees, the highest number of responses were within 'Human Resource Challenges', 'Managers Priority', 'Time' and 'Personal Factors.' Collectively, these accounted for 78 mentee responses (85.71% of all mentee responses).

Similarly, for mentors the majority of responses were clustered around three of the same factors as mentors; 'HR Challenges', 'Time' and 'Personal Factors.' For mentors, collectively these responses accounted for 61 mentor responses (80.26% of all mentor responses.) The four key moderating factors which received the highest number of responses for mentees and the highest three for mentors have been chosen for further discussion, in the next table (Table 9.6).











Table 9.6 shows whether the responses were predominantly positive or negative for either party with more specific detail in relation to number of responses and focus groups. This table also shows the number of responses as a percentage of all the mentee and mentor responses. It also shows the number of mentee and mentor focus groups in which these moderating factors were mentioned and the percentage response rates.

**Table 9.5** - Factors that moderated the learning that took place within the NEPF mentoring relationships

Moderating factors (Taken from Hegstad & Wentling, 2005 with some factors added)	MENTEES No. of sources (n=20)	MENTEES No. of responses	+	-	MENTORS No. of sources (n=18)	MENTORS No. of responses	+	-	TOTAL no. of mentee and mentor responses
Alignment of program/missions	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
Confidentiality/Trust	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
Co-ordinator/mentorin g team commitment	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
Corporate Structure/size	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
Design/structure of process	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
Distance/location of pairs	1	3	0	3	0	0	0	0	3
Effective matching strategy	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
Effective, ongoing communication	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
Human resource challenges	8	15	5	10	9	15	6	9	30
Mentor recruitment	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
Not always a management priority	9	24	5	19	4	4	2	2	28
Organizational changes	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
Participant empowerment	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
Thorough development	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
Time constraints	9	27	11	16	9	20	7	13	47
Top-level management support	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
<u>Additional factors:</u>									
Difference	3	4	4	0	5	6	4	2	10
Other relationships	2	4	3	1	2	2	2	0	6
Personal factors	7	12	6	6	9	26	12	14	38
Similarity	2	2	2	0	3	3	3	0	5
<b>TOTAL (all factors):</b>	<b>-</b>	<b>91</b>	<b>36 (39.56 %)</b>	<b>55 (60.44 %)</b>	<b>-</b>	<b>76</b>	<b>36 (47.3 7%)</b>	<b>40 (52.63 %)</b>	<b>167</b>

**Key:** + = facilitating/supporting responses and - = hindering/not supporting responses

**Table 9.6 -** The four key moderating factors within the NEPF mentoring relationships, showing the extent to which they were positively or negatively mentioned

4 key moderating factors	MENTEE No. of sources		MENTEE No. of responses		MENTEE responses mostly...	MENTOR No. of sources		MENTOR No. of responses		MENTOR responses mostly...
<b>HR CHALLENGES</b>	8 (66.67%)		15 (16.48%)			9 (75%)		15 (19.74%)		
<b>Positive/negative Responses/Sources</b>	+	-	+	-	 hindering	+	-	+	-	 hindering
	5	5	5	10		4	7	6	9	
<b>MANAGERS</b>	9 (75%)		24 (26.37%)			4 (33.33%)		4 (5.26%)		
<b>Positive/negative Responses/Sources</b>	+	-	+	-	 hindering	+	-	+	-	  equal
	4	8	5	19		2	2	2	2	
<b>TIME</b>	9 (75%)		27 (29.67%)			9 (75%)		20 (26.32%)		
<b>Positive/negative Responses/Sources</b>	+	-	+	-	 hindering	+	-	+	-	 hindering
	8	7	11	16		4	7	7	13	
<b>PERSONAL FACTORS</b>	7 (58.33%)		12 (13.19%)			9 (75%)		26 (34.21%)		
<b>Positive/negative Responses/Sources</b>	+	-	+	-	  equal	+	-	+	-	 hindering
	5	4	6	6		6	7	12	14	

*Note: Positive and negative sources do not add up to total sources, as some respondents mentioned both positive and negative factors*

This table shows that these four key moderating factors have drawn both positive and negative responses from both mentees and mentors but generally overall are showing a negative picture. None of these top four moderating factors are clearly facilitating the mentoring relationships. Interestingly, mentees and mentors did not fundamentally disagree with each other on whether factors were facilitating or hindering; there seems to be a general consensus between the two parties. Mentees and mentors agreed that ‘HR Challenges’ together with ‘Time’ were mostly hindering factors and that ‘Managers’ were a hindering factor for mentees but equally facilitating and hindering for mentors (but a very low response rate of two positive and two negative comments). ‘Personal Factors’ were clearly hindering for mentors, but equally facilitating and hindering for mentees (again, with a very low response rate of six positive and six negative comments).

‘Time’ created the greatest number of responses for mentees overall (29.67% of the total mentee responses) and this factor together with ‘Managers’ for mentees were mentioned in 75% of mentee focus groups. For mentors their highest response rate was in relation to ‘Personal Factors’ (34.217% of the total mentor responses) mentioned in 75% of mentor focus groups. Of these four key moderating factors, the least responses for mentees was ‘Personal Factors’ (only 12 mentee responses) and was mentioned in the least amount of mentee focus groups (58.33%). For mentors, ‘Managers’ received the lowest responses (4 mentor responses) and was mentioned in the least amount of mentor focus groups (33.33%).

The highest number of positive responses for mentees was in the area of ‘Time’ (11 positive responses) but for mentors was ‘Personal Factors’ (12 positive responses.) Factors with the most negative responses for mentees were ‘Managers’ (19 negative responses) and ‘Time’ (16 negative responses) but for mentors, the most negative responses were within ‘Personal Factors’ (14 responses) and ‘Time’ (13 responses.) Overall within these four factors, the factor with most differentiation between positive and negative responses came for mentees within ‘Managers’ 5 positive to 19 negative, and for mentors within ‘Time’ 7 positive to 13 negative responses.

Mentee and mentor quotations in relation to each of the four moderating factors in this Table 9.6 are displayed in Appendix XIV.

In summary, Table 9.5 together with Table 9.6 and the accompanying quotes (in Appendix XIII) clearly show that mentoring is effected mostly negatively within NEPF by the four key factors. HR Challenges and time are mostly hindering factors for both parties, together with managers (more so for mentees) and personal factors (more so for mentors).

#### **9.4 Result of addressing research question 4: *How do these moderating factors change over time for both parties within the NEPF?***

The final research question was aimed at understanding how the key moderating factors for both parties within the NEPF mentoring relationships had changed over time. Findings from the mentee and mentor focus groups will be displayed in this next table.

As a reminder, the NEPF focus groups were carried out over a 9-month period at three points to coincide roughly with the four phases of the mentoring lifecycle (Kram, 1988). For instance, focus group 1; at the end of the initiation phase/start of the cultivation phase (3 month point), focus group 2; at the end of the cultivation phase/start of the separation phase (6 month point), focus group 3; at the end of the separation phase/start of the redefinition phase (9 month point). These four phases have been condensed into three due to the slightly shorter timescale, as the NEPF formal mentoring programme was set for 9 months only.

This detail and the response rates by mentee and mentor, within these condensed three phases together with the most discussed moderating factors are displayed in Table 9.7.

This table shows that the majority of responses were made by both mentees and mentors in the first two focus groups and that the responses declined quite dramatically for both parties (more so for mentors) in the final focus group. The cultivation/separation phase (focus group 2) had the most responses (60 total responses), just two responses more than the initiation/cultivation phase (focus group 1) with 58 total responses. The final phases/focus group 3 had the least responses from mentees and mentors (25 responses in total.) For both mentees and mentors, their negative responses outweighed the positive ones at every phase, except for mentors in focus group 3. For both mentees and mentors their negative responses reduced over time; for mentees in focus group 1 23 out of 29 (79.31%) of their responses were negative but in focus group 3, 10 out of 18 (55.56%) were negative and for mentors this changed from 21 out of 29 (72.41%) negative to 1 out of 7 (14.29%) negative responses at the end. For mentees, the most positive comments were equally

made in focus groups 2 and 3 (8 positive responses) but for mentors, the most positive comments were made in focus group 2 (13 positive responses) and this was the focus groups where the most positive responses were made by both (21 in total).

More specifically, this table shows that for mentees the majority of responses (31 out of 78 or 39.74% of all mentee responses) were made in the second focus group and the first focus group (29 out of 78 or 37.18%) but reduced by almost half in the final focus groups. Responses reduced steadily for HR Challenges, maintained the same levels for managers and for time but personal factors increased in focus group 2 but declined (lower than the starting number of responses) in focus group 3.

For mentees, the most negative responses were made about time and the most dramatic reduction of responses over time comes from within time too (focus group 2; 13 responses and focus group 3; 3). The most positive comments were made about time too (8 responses). In terms of positive and negative changes over time for mentees, all four key moderating factors maintained primarily negative responses throughout all three focus groups, except for time and personal factors in the final focus groups where although the responses were very minimal (3 responses) two positive responses outweighed the negative one. Interestingly for mentees, the majority of responses over all four factors were negative in all three sets of focus groups but there was less differentiation in the final focus groups/phase.

For mentors, this Table 9.7 shows that the majority of responses (58 out of 65 or 89.23% of all mentor responses) were made in the first and second focus groups with all four key moderating factors reducing from the first phases to the final phases.



**Table 9.7** - Categorisation of the collected NEPF mentee/mentor positive and negative responses on the four key moderating factors against a condensed version of Kram's (1988) four mentoring phases

Mentees/ Mentors	Phases/ Moderating factors	Initiation/ Cultivation Focus Group 1		Cultivation/ Separation Focus group 2		Separation/ Redefinition Focus group 3		Total No. of Responses	
<b>MENTEES</b>		6		5		4		<b>15</b>	
<b>Positive /Negative</b>	HR Challenges	+	-	+	-	+	-		
		1	5	2	3	2	2		
		8		8		8		<b>24</b>	
<b>Positive /Negative</b>	Managers	+	-	+	-	+	-		
		1	7	1	7	2	6		
		11		13		3		<b>27</b>	
<b>Positive /Negative</b>	Time	+	-	+	-	+	-		
		2	9	4	9	2	1		
		4		5		3		<b>12</b>	
<b>Positive /Negative</b>	Personal Factors	+	-	+	-	+	-		
		2	2	1	4	2	1		
	<b>Total mentee responses by focus group</b>	<b>29</b>		<b>31</b>		<b>18</b>		<b>78</b>	
	<b>Total mentee positive/negative responses</b>	+	-	+	-	+	-	+	-
		6	23	8	23	8	10	22	56
<b>MENTORS</b>		6		8		1		<b>15</b>	
<b>Positive /Negative</b>	HR Challenges	+	-	+	-	+	-		
		1	5	4	4	1	0		
		2		1		1		<b>4</b>	
<b>Positive /Negative</b>	Managers	+	-	+	-	+	-		
		0	2	1	0	1	0		
		9		8		3		<b>20</b>	
<b>Positive /Negative</b>	Time	+	-	+	-	+	-		
		2	7	3	5	2	1		
		12		12		2		<b>26</b>	
<b>Positive /Negative</b>	Personal Factors	+	-	+	-	+	-		
		5	7	5	7	2	0		
	<b>Total mentor responses by focus group</b>	<b>29</b>		<b>29</b>		<b>7</b>		<b>65</b>	
	<b>Total mentor positive/negative responses</b>	+	-	+	-	+	-	+	-
		8	21	13	16	6	1	27	38
<b>Overall totals</b>	Mentees/mentors responses together	<b>58</b>		<b>60</b>		<b>25</b>		<b>143</b>	
<b>Positive /Negative</b>		+	-	+	-	+	-	+	-
		14	44	21	39	14	11	49	94

Mentors managers and time responses reduced over time throughout the phases but responses in relation to HR challenges increased in the second focus groups and maintained high levels within personal factors before reducing in the final focus groups. Interestingly for mentors, the majority of responses over all four moderating factors were negative in the first two sets of focus groups but switched to predominantly positive overall in the final phase. The most negative comments were

made about personal factors overall (14 responses) but this was also the factor with the most dramatic decrease in responses over time (focus group 2; 12 responses and focus group 3; 2). The most positive comments were made about personal factors too (12 responses). The phase with the least amount of responses for mentors was the separation/redefinition phase/the final focus groups. In terms of positive and negative changes over time for mentors, negative comments for all four factors reduced over time and responses became increasingly positive.

In short, with mentee and mentor responses altogether, over time responses switched from predominantly negative in phases 1/2 and 2/3 to predominantly positive in phases 3/4. The main contributors to the negative responses in the first two focus groups were time (mentees) and personal factors (mentors) and these had the biggest contribution to the positive responses too for both parties.

### **9.5 Synthesis of the NEPF study findings.**

These findings show that both NEPF mentees and mentors are learning within all four learning domains; cognitive, skill-based, affective-related and through social networks, during their formal mentoring relationships. The scope and volume of responses varied between the two parties. For mentees and mentors, the majority of their learning was within the cognitive and affective-related domain. The least amount of learning for both parties was within the skill-based domain. Over the mentoring cycle, learning for mentees was greater in the final phases but for mentors within the middle phases.

Mentees and mentors cited two similar key moderating factors that were mostly hindering their mentoring relationships; HR challenges and time. Mentees felt that managers were mostly hindering too but that personal factors were equally facilitating and hindering. Mentors felt that managers were equally facilitating and hindering though (with very few comments in this area) and that personal factors overall were hindering their mentoring relationships. Over the mentoring

cycle, mentees and mentors comments tended to shift from predominantly negative in the early phases to increasingly less negative in the latter phases.

The next chapter (chapter 10) will draw the findings together from the three case study organisations discussed so far using the same four research questions, in order to display the similarities and differences between them.

## Chapter 10 - Results of the Cross-case Comparison Analysis

This chapter collates the key findings from all three case study organisations in order to determine what is common and what is different between them.

This chapter will display the results from the three case studies together taken from chapters 7, 8 and 9, in an attempt to show the similarities and differences between the three case studies but particularly in relation to the core case study (CEPF). As previously discussed, all three case study organisations (referred to in this section now as ‘cases’) were situated within the public sector and the CEPF and the NEPF are both Police organisations, so there was some similarity of context. It is hoped that some transferability can be seen between the three cases and that the results may be insightful beyond these three cases too.

In this chapter, each of the four research questions will be addressed and discussed. As a reminder, the NHS information has been drawn from 38 interviews (5 mentees and 5 mentors), the CEPF information from 68 interviews (32 mentees and 36 mentors) and the NEPF information from 12 focus groups. This chapter concludes with an overall summary of the findings in relation to what is common between the three cases, between two cases only and those which are single case specific.

### **10.1 Result of addressing research question 1: *What do mentees and mentors perceive they are learning during their formal mentoring relationships within the three case study organisations?***

A comparison of the extent of mentees and mentors perceptions of their learning within their mentoring relationships is summarised into Table 10.1. This table shows the respective number of responses made within each of the cases in relation to the four learning domains. As well as showing the total number of mentee and mentor responses, the percentage of the overall total responses by learning domain have also been included together with an indication of the order in which the domains were mentioned; from most frequent (1<sup>st</sup>) to least frequent (4<sup>th</sup>). The two

domains with the highest number of responses have been highlighted in green and the two domains with the least amount have been highlighted in red.

This table demonstrates that all four domains were discussed in all three cases but the number of responses and which domains were most or least mentioned varied between mentee and mentor, and across the three different cases. This table also shows that for mentees there seemed to be a similar pattern in relation to their learning domain responses but for mentors, the pattern was only directly similar for the first two cases and with the third case generally in terms of the highest response rate and the lowest but not the two domains in-between i.e. cognitive and skill-based are quite dissimilar.

This table shows that in all three case study organisations, mentees gave more responses than mentors about their learning; this is most obvious in NEPF where mentees made 110 more responses than mentors. For mentees the majority of their responses were within the cognitive or affective-related learning domain; either first or second place in relation to the number of responses, for instance 66 cognitive responses (45.21%) for NHS mentees and 95 affective-related responses (36.97%) for CEPF mentees. Also, this table shows that there is quite a difference between the NHS mentee cognitive responses and the two Police cases, with over 45% of NHS mentee responses in this area, which is over 10% more than the others. The number of mentee responses in relation to the skill-based and social network learning domains were lower; either third or fourth place, for instance 21 mentee responses (8.17%) for the CEPF in relation to social networks; the lowest mentee response rate of them all.

**Table 10.1** Comparison of the extent of mentee and mentor learning in each learning domain across the three cases

<b>Mentees/ Mentors</b>	<b>Learning domains/cases</b>	<b>NHS (interviews)</b>	<b>CEPF (interviews)</b>	<b>NEPF (focus groups)</b>
<b><u>Mentees</u> No. of responses</b>	Cognitive	66 (45.21%) 1 <sup>st</sup>	86 (33.46%) 2 <sup>nd</sup>	54 (28.73%) Joint 1 <sup>st</sup>
	Skill-based	24 (16.44%) 3 <sup>rd</sup>	55 (21.40%) 3 <sup>rd</sup>	38 (20.21%) 4 <sup>th</sup>
	Affective- related	37 (25.34%) 2 <sup>nd</sup>	95 (36.97%) 1 <sup>st</sup>	54 (28.72%) Joint 1 <sup>st</sup>
	Social networks	19 (13.01%) 4 <sup>th</sup>	21 (8.17%) 4 <sup>th</sup>	42 (22.34%) 3 <sup>rd</sup>
	<b>Total mentee responses</b>	<b>146</b>	<b>257</b>	<b>188</b>
<b><u>Mentors</u> No. of responses</b>	Cognitive	36 (28.13%) 3 <sup>rd</sup>	55 (28.80%) 3 <sup>rd</sup>	32 (41.03%) 1 <sup>st</sup>
	Skill-based	37 (28.90%) 2 <sup>nd</sup>	58 (30.37%) 2 <sup>nd</sup>	11 (14.10%) 4 <sup>th</sup>
	Affective- related	42 (32.81%) 1 <sup>st</sup>	67 (35.08%) 1 <sup>st</sup>	22 (28.21%) 2 <sup>nd</sup>
	Social networks	13 (10.16%) 4 <sup>th</sup>	11 (5.75%) 4 <sup>th</sup>	13 (16.66%) 3 <sup>rd</sup>
	<b>Total mentor responses</b>	<b>128</b>	<b>191</b>	<b>78</b>

For mentors the majority of their responses were within the affective-related learning domain; with two first places and one second place, for instance 67 responses for CEPF but after this the responses for mentors tended to fluctuate between the other three learning domains with the NEPF results presenting quite differently to the other two case studies; NHS and CEPF. For instance, NEPF responses were most frequent in the cognitive domain (41.03% of all their responses) with the other 2 cases, much less so (28% of all their responses) and in respect of social networks more responses than the other two cases (16.66% for the NEPF, with 10.16% for the NHS and 5.75% for the CEPF.) For mentors, the order of responses was exactly the same within the NHS and CEPF, for instance cognitive learning was within third place, but for the NEPF, cognitive learning was first place.

The next table (Table 10.2) demonstrates the key themes discussed by mentees and mentors in relation to the learning outcomes, within the four learning domains. Areas of similarity have been highlighted in the same colours. This table shows that for mentees and mentors separately and together, there were similar patterns in relation to some of the key learning, in each learning domain, for instance; learning about the wider organisation (cognitive), developing listening/communication skills (skill-based), confidence and self-awareness (affective-related) and new contacts in other departments (social networks) were all discussed by both mentees and mentors. However, this table shows that there was some learning in each of the domains that was different for mentees and mentors. For instance in the CEPF; promotional information (mentees/cognitive), work-life balance (mentees/skill-based), motivation (mentees/affective-related) and raised awareness of own contacts (mentors/social networks).

For mentees, within the cognitive learning domain they were learning about the wider organisation across all three cases. Mentees in the NHS mentioned practical support, as do those within CEPF together with promotional information and for NEPF they were also learning about the learning and development opportunities available to them. Within the skill-based domain mentees were learning to develop a number of skills, none of which were the same across all three cases (this could be connected to the differing purposes of the mentoring programmes; discussed later), yet reflection and communication were mentioned within CEPF and one in each other case. Confidence was a common theme within the affective-related domain for all three cases, with positivity and self-awareness being mentioned across two cases too. Social networks had some similarities in relation to other departments and making new contacts and connections but again between two cases but this time not CEPF. Other learning was mentioned which was specific to each of the cases i.e. the NHS scheme was set up to develop study skills so it was expected that practical support would be given and study skills developed; the CEPF scheme purpose was in relation to supporting women into more senior positions, so promotional information was expected to be shared and interview skills developed and the same for NEPF in relation to making clear opportunities and developing leadership skills.

**Table 10.2** Comparison of mentee and mentor learning outcomes in each learning domain across the three cases

Mentees/ Mentors	Learning domains/cases	NHS (interviews)	CEPF (interviews)	NEPF (focus groups)
<b>Mentees key learning outcomes</b>	Cognitive	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Practical support</li> <li>• Wider org</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Promotional info</li> <li>• Practical advice</li> <li>• Wider org</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• L&amp;D opportunities</li> <li>• Wider org</li> </ul>
	Skill-based	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Study skills</li> <li>• Listening</li> <li>• Reflection</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Interview skills</li> <li>• Communication</li> <li>• Coping with stress</li> <li>• Work-life balance</li> <li>• Reflection</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Goal setting</li> <li>• Problem solving</li> <li>• Leadership</li> <li>• Management</li> <li>• Communication</li> <li>• Reflection</li> </ul>
	Affective-related	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Confidence</li> <li>• Focus</li> <li>• Self-awareness</li> <li>• Positivity</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Confidence</li> <li>• Positivity</li> <li>• Motivation</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Confidence</li> <li>• Drive</li> <li>• Self-awareness</li> <li>• Attitude</li> </ul>
	Social networks	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Talking to others</li> <li>• Other depts.</li> <li>• Other specialisms</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Signposting</li> <li>• Making connections</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Contacts</li> <li>• Project opportunities</li> <li>• Meetings in other depts.</li> </ul>
<b>Mentors key learning outcomes</b>	Cognitive	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Wider org</li> <li>• About mentees</li> <li>• About mentoring</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Wider org</li> <li>• About mentees</li> <li>• About mentoring</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• About mentees</li> <li>• About mentoring</li> </ul>
	Skill-based	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Questioning</li> <li>• Listening</li> <li>• Patience</li> <li>• Assertiveness</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Questioning</li> <li>• Listening</li> <li>• Planning</li> <li>• Support</li> <li>• Challenge</li> <li>• Empathy</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Reflection</li> <li>• Listening</li> </ul>
	Affective-related	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Confidence about mentoring</li> <li>• Positivity</li> <li>• Self-awareness</li> <li>• Patience</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Confidence about mentoring</li> <li>• Self-awareness</li> <li>• Positivity</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Confidence about mentoring</li> <li>• Self-awareness</li> </ul>
	Social networks	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Other depts.</li> <li>• New contacts</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Raised awareness of own contacts</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• New meetings</li> <li>• Created own new contacts</li> </ul>



For mentors, the common thread between the cases in relation to cognitive learning were in relation to knowledge about the mentee and mentoring; the same in all three cases. Increased knowledge about the wider organisation was mentioned in two out of the three cases, unlike mentees where this was mentioned in all three. There were some skills that were different in all three cases but listening was mentioned in all three cases with questioning mentioned in two; NHS and CEPF. Confidence, as with mentees, was mentioned in all three cases but for mentors this was particularly in relation to their ability to mentor but for mentees this was focussed more on their own self-confidence generally. Self-awareness was also common between all three cases for mentors, and an increased positivity was shared within two cases too (NHS and CEPF). New contacts were mentioned within two cases but with the CEPF case having an increased awareness of their own contacts but not learning any new ones. For mentees, there was not an obvious pattern between the various cases but for mentors there seems to be more similarity between the content of the first two cases (NHS and CEPF) within the first three learning domains. This connects with Table 10.1 where a pattern was identified between the first two cases in relation to volume of responses for each learning domain. This is discussed later in the next chapter.

## **10.2 Result of addressing research question 2: *How does the learning change over time for both parties, within the three case study organisations?***

A comparison of the extent of mentees and mentors perceptions of how their learning changed over time within their mentoring relationships, in all three cases, is summarised into Table 10.3. This table shows the percentage of responses (rounded up from previous tables) within each of the case study organisations in relation to the four learning domains, in each of the four phases of the mentoring cycle (i.e. initiation, cultivation, separation and redefinition). As a reminder, the four phases of the mentoring cycle within the NEPF focus groups were condensed across the three focus groups. A comment is made after each set of percentages stating whether the response rate has fluctuated, increased and/or decreased over time, with the second comment making it clear whether the responses have been decreasing, increasing or remained the same between the first and the final phase. Where responses have increased between phase 1 and 4, these have been highlighted in

green but where they have decreased, these have been highlighted in red. The numbers have been rounded up from the previous tables for easier reference.

This table demonstrates that many of the learning domain responses fluctuated over time within all three cases, with less than half of the learning domains for both mentee and mentor showing a steady increase or steady decrease over time. The NEPF responses showed the only steady decrease over time in relation to the cognitive domain for mentees but showed three increases over time too (affective-related and social networks for mentees and cognitive for mentors). This table also shows that there was a similar increase in responses for both mentees and mentors, over time, in relation to the affective-related domain.

**Table 10.3** Comparison of mentee and mentor responses on the four learning domains against the four phases of the mentoring cycle, across the three cases

Mentees/ Mentors	Learning domains/cases	NHS (interviews)	CEPF (interviews)	NEPF (focus groups)
<b>Mentees responses changing over time</b>	Cognitive	12%-27%-24%-36% Fluctuated/ <b>Increasing</b>	36%-22%-10%-31% Fluctuated/ <b>Decreasing</b>	44%-30%-26% Decreased/ <b>Decreasing</b>
	Skill-based	17%-4%-17%-63% Fluctuated/ <b>Increasing</b>	36%-11%-16%-36% Fluctuated/Same	29%-26%-45% Fluctuated/ <b>Increasing</b>
	Affective-related	11%-14%-24%-51% Increased/ <b>Increasing</b>	26%-13%-21%-40% Fluctuated/ <b>Increasing</b>	24%-26%-50% Increased/ <b>Increasing</b>
	Social networks	11%-16%-42%-32% Fluctuated/ <b>Increasing</b>	52%-29%-0%-19% Fluctuated/ <b>Decreasing</b>	24%-38%-38% Increased/ <b>Increasing</b>
<b>Mentors responses changing over time</b>	Cognitive	28%-31%-17%-25% Fluctuated/ <b>Decreasing</b>	40%-18%-14%-27% Fluctuated/ <b>Decreasing</b>	31%-34%-34% Increased/ <b>Increasing</b>
	Skill-based	19%-19%-30%-32% Increased/ <b>Increasing</b>	19%-28%-21%-33% Fluctuated/ <b>Increasing</b>	27%-64%-9% Fluctuated/ <b>Decreasing</b>
	Affective-related	19%-26%-31%-24% Fluctuated/ <b>Increasing</b>	30%-19%-16%-34% Fluctuated/ <b>Increasing</b>	14%-45%-41% Fluctuated/ <b>Increasing</b>
	Social networks	8%-23%-23%-46% Increased/ <b>Increasing</b>	0%-18%-18%-64% Increased/ <b>Increasing</b>	8%-69%-23% Fluctuated/ <b>Increasing</b>

For mentees, this table shows that affective-related learning increased over time for all three cases but that was the only learning domain that showed a similar pattern for mentees, in all three cases.

The NHS and the NEPF responses increased over time within the skill-based domain as they did

within the social network domain, but within the CEPF this decreased over time. The cognitive domain showed similarity for CEPF and NEPF in relation to responses decreasing over time but that was the only similarity between the two police force cases. Responses within all four learning domains within the NHS case increased over time, three learning domains increased for the NEPF but only one learning domain for the CEPF over time (the affective-related domain).

For mentors, two learning domains showed similarity across all three cases; affective-related and social networks, both increasing over time. However, the pattern of NEPF responses again was quite different to the other two cases in the other two domains; with the NHS and CEPF responses decreasing over time in the cognitive domain but increasing over time in the skill-based domain. However, the NEPF showed opposite results, again this suggested a similarity between the other two cases, in relation to learning domains and mentor responses. When reviewing the results from mentees and mentors together, it is clear that both parties affective-related responses increased over time in all three cases. For the NHS mentees and mentors their skill-based and social network learning increased over time too but both parties within the NEPF only their social network learning had increased over time. For the CEPF, both parties cognitive learning responses decreased over time but had opposite views about skill-based and social network learning, over time.

### **10.3. Result of addressing research question 3: *What are the factors that moderate mentee and mentor learning during their formal mentoring relationships, within the three case study organisations?***

A comparison of whether mentees and mentors perceived the 9 key moderating factors, discussed in detail in earlier chapters, as facilitating or hindering their learning within their mentoring relationships is summarised into Table 10.4. This table shows whether the comments made were predominantly positive (facilitating factors) highlighted in green or predominantly negative (hindering factors) in red. N/A indicates that no responses were given by either mentees or mentors for this moderating factor. The comments made in italics represent the moderating factors that were

not considered significant for detailed discussion earlier, but they have been mentioned (albeit at a low level) by some mentees and mentors, so they have been included in this table to show any similarity or difference with the other cases. For the CEPF organisation in this table, the focus group results for managers have been added too as there was a stark difference between what mentees and mentors said in the interviews and the focus groups.

This table demonstrates that in all three cases both mentees and mentors showed that time was a hindering factor and in two out of three cases, that HR challenges and organisational changes were also hindering factors. This table also shows that mentees perceived other relationships to be facilitating during their mentoring relationships, as well as similarity and difference and this too was replicated by mentor's responses.

For mentees, apart from similarities with perceiving time, HR challenges and organisational changes as being hindering factors, there was difference in response within the area of managers. The NHS and CEPF interview responses showed these were facilitating but the CEPF focus groups and NEPF focus groups responses showed that these were hindering factors. Personal factors also had similar results from mentees within the NHS and the CEPF stating that these were hindering factors but for NEPF these were considered equally facilitating and hindering. Other relationships, similarity and difference were considered to be facilitating factors within all three cases, although some responses were low, particularly within NEPF in these areas. Effective matching strategy was only mentioned by the CEPF mentees and not mentioned within the two other cases at all.

Mentors in all three cases discussed that time and personal factors were common hindering factors. Effective matching strategy, HR challenges and organisational changes were only mentioned in two cases but these were hindering factors too. As with mentees, there was difference in response for mentees in relation to managers; the NHS and CEPF interviews showed that this was a facilitating factor but the CEPF focus groups suggested this was hindering, and the NEPF focus groups suggested they were equally facilitating and hindering. Other relationships, similarity and difference were considered to be facilitating factors for all three cases (the same for mentees),

although again some responses were low, particularly within NEPF in these areas. Effective matching strategy was mentioned by the NHS and CEPF mentors as a hindering factor but was not mentioned by NEPF mentors (nor mentees) at all. Generally, the trends between mentee and mentors across the three cases are similar except for managers, personal factors and the effective matching strategy.

**Table 10.4** Comparison of the 9 key moderating factors in relation to whether mentees and mentors across the three cases perceived they were facilitating or hindering factors

<b>Mentees/ Mentors</b>	<b>Moderating factors</b>	<b>NHS (interviews)</b>	<b>CEPF (interviews/focus groups)</b>	<b>NEPF (focus groups)</b>
<b><u>Mentees</u></b>	Difference	Facilitating	Facilitating	<i>Low - Facilitating</i>
	Effective Matching Strategy	N/A	Facilitating	N/A
	HR challenges	N/A	Hindering	Hindering
	Managers	Facilitating	Facilitating (interviews) Hindering (focus groups)	Hindering
	Organisational changes	<i>Low - Hindering</i>	Hindering	N/A
	Other relationships	Facilitating	<i>Low - Facilitating</i>	<i>Low - Facilitating</i>
	Personal factors	<i>Low - Hindering</i>	Hindering	Facilitating/Hindering
	Similarity	Facilitating	Facilitating	<i>Low - Facilitating</i>
	Time	Hindering	Hindering	Hindering
<b><u>Mentors</u></b>	Difference	Facilitating	Facilitating	<i>Low - Facilitating</i>
	Effective matching strategy	<i>Low - Hindering</i>	Hindering	N/A
	HR challenges	N/A	Hindering	Hindering
	Managers	<i>Low - Hindering</i>	Facilitating (interviews) Hindering (focus groups)	<i>Low - Hindering/ Facilitating</i>
	Organisational changes	<i>Low - Hindering</i>	Hindering	N/A
	Other relationships	Facilitating	<i>Low - Facilitating</i>	<i>Low - Facilitating</i>
	Personal factors	<i>Low - Hindering</i>	Hindering	Hindering
	Similarity	Facilitating	Facilitating	<i>Low - Facilitating</i>
	Time	Hindering	Hindering	Hindering

#### **10.4 Result of addressing research question 4: *How do these moderating factors change over time for both parties within the three case study organisations?***

A comparison of mentee and mentor responses in relation to the 9 key moderating factors and whether they have increased or decreased over time is summarised into Table 10.5. This table shows the actual number of responses made by mentees and mentors for each of the four phases of the mentoring cycle (remembering that the NEPF had condensed the four phases into three). A comment is made after each set of responses stating whether the response rate has fluctuated, increased and/or decreased over time, with the second comment making it clear whether the responses have been decreasing, increasing or remained the same between the first and the final phase. As with Table 10.3, where responses have increased between phase 1 and 4, these have been highlighted in green but where they have decreased, these have been highlighted in red, but if remained the same, these are not highlighted. Again, the numbers and comments made in italics represent the moderating factors that were not considered significant for detailed discussion in earlier chapters, but they have been mentioned (albeit at a low level) by some mentees and mentors, so they have been included in this table to show any similarity or difference with the other cases. Again, the numbers have been rounded up from previous tables for ease of reference.

This table demonstrates that in all three cases, mentee responses decreased over time in relation to time and personal factors, with none collectively increasing over time in all three cases. For mentors responses in relation to other relationships and similarity decreased over time within all three cases, again with no factor responses collectively increasing over time for all three cases.

For mentees, this table shows that the majority of responses in most of the 9 key moderating factors reduced over time. This is particularly clear within the two Police case studies whereby all the CEPF mentee responses reduced from phase 1 to phase 4, and similarly for the NEPF where four out of the six significant factors showed decreasing numbers and the remaining two showed the

same number of responses at the start and end points. In the NHS for mentees, four out of the seven factors had increasing response rates and showed an opposite trend to the Police case studies in relation to managers, other relationships, similarity and organisational changes.

**Table 10.5** Comparison of the 9 key moderating factors in relation to mentees and mentors responses against the four phases of the mentoring cycle, across the three cases

Mentees/ Mentors	Moderating factors	NHS (interviews)	CEPF (interviews)	NEPF (focus groups)
<b>Mentees</b> No. of responses	Managers	4-5-6-12 Increased/ <i>Increasing</i>	23-3-8-9 Fluctuated/ <i>Decreasing</i>	8-8-8 Same/Same
	Other relationships	6-14-20-23 Increased/ <i>Increasing</i>	<i>Low 13-4-12-2</i> Fluctuated/ <i>Decreasing</i>	<i>Low 1-3-0</i> Fluctuated/ <i>Decreasing</i>
	Time	10-10-5-8 Fluctuated/ <i>Decreasing</i>	21-11-11-11 Decreased/ <i>Decreasing</i>	11-13-3 Fluctuated/ <i>Decreasing</i>
	Effective matching strategy	N/A	13-4-12-8 Fluctuated/ <i>Decreasing</i>	N/A
	Similarity	8-10-5-9 Fluctuated/ <i>Increasing</i>	32-14-9-9 Decreased/ <i>Decreasing</i>	<i>Low 1-1-0</i> Same/ <i>Decreasing</i>
	HR challenges	N/A	15-3-4-13 Fluctuated/ <i>Decreasing</i>	6-5-4 Decreased/ <i>Decreasing</i>
	Organisational changes	<i>Low 2-1-2-3</i> Fluctuated/ <i>Increasing</i>	14-14-17-13 Fluctuated/ <i>Decreasing</i>	N/A
	Personal factors	<i>Low 2-1-1-0</i> Fluctuated/ <i>Decreasing</i>	13-2-11-12 Fluctuated/ <i>Decreasing</i>	4-5-3 Fluctuated/ <i>Decreasing</i>
	Difference	2-3-5-2 Fluctuated/Same	12-3-3-6 Fluctuated/ <i>Decreasing</i>	<i>Low 1-2-1</i> Fluctuated/Same
<b>Mentors</b> No. of responses	Managers	<i>Low 1-2-0-2</i> Fluctuated/ <i>Increasing</i>	14-6-9-10 Fluctuated/ <i>Decreasing</i>	<i>Low 2-1-1</i> Decreased/ <i>Decreasing</i>
	Other relationships	8-10-3-1 Fluctuated/ <i>Decreasing</i>	<i>Low 10-4-9-3</i> Fluctuated/ <i>Decreasing</i>	<i>Low 1-1-0</i> Same/ <i>Decreasing</i>
	Time	6-9-4-9 Fluctuated/ <i>Increasing</i>	20-15-18-29 Fluctuated/ <i>Increasing</i>	9-8-3 Decreased/ <i>Decreasing</i>
	Effective matching strategy	<i>Low 2-1-0-0</i> Fluctuated/ <i>Decreasing</i>	7-4-13-10 Fluctuated/ <i>Increasing</i>	N/A
	Similarity	7-8-4-4 Fluctuated/ <i>Decreasing</i>	17-12-12-2 Decreased/ <i>Decreasing</i>	<i>Low 2-1-0</i> Decreased/ <i>Decreasing</i>
	HR challenges	N/A	2-6-18-15 Increased/ <i>Increasing</i>	6-8-1 Fluctuated/ <i>Decreasing</i>
	Organisational changes	<i>Low 0-3-1-1</i> Fluctuated/ <i>Increasing</i>	5-19-26-29 Increased/ <i>Increasing</i>	N/A
	Personal factors	<i>Low 0-1-0-1</i> Fluctuated/ <i>Increasing</i>	10-6-12-10 Fluctuated/Same	12-12-2 Fluctuated/ <i>Decreasing</i>
	Difference	2-4-0-5 Fluctuated/ <i>Increasing</i>	12-14-7-5 Fluctuated/ <i>Decreasing</i>	<i>Low 4-1-1</i> Decreased/ <i>Decreasing</i>

For mentors, the majority of responses decreased over time for the NEPF case, which is directly similar to the mentees responses, with not one increasing over time. For CEPF mentors, four factors are increasingly mentioned over time, two of which coincide with the NHS; time and organisational changes. Again, the NHS has the most increasing factors for mentors (albeit three of those are low numbers). Within the NHS, there are two factors where mentees and mentors

responses were similar; managers and organisational changes, with their responses increasing over time. For the CEPF, mentees and mentor responses decreased over time for the following factors; managers, other relationships, similarity and difference. The NEPF mentees and mentors had similar responses with two of these four factors; other relationships and similarity, but also had time and personal factors as decreasingly mentioned factors.

### **10.5 Summary of the key findings from all three cases.**

In order to summarise the key findings displayed in chapters 7, 8, and 9 and the themes and trends identified within Tables 10.1 to 10.5, please see Figs. 10.1 to 10.4. The key findings have been listed in each figure, under each research question, using specific headings to show whether the results found are common to all three cases, common to two cases or are specific to one case only.

In summary, these figures clearly show that there are some common themes between the three different cases in relation to what both parties perceive they have learnt, what has facilitated and what has hindered their mentoring relationships and how these aspects have changed over time.

Fig. 10.1 shows that both mentees and mentor learnt across all four learning domains, in all three cases and that mentees discussed their learning more than their mentors. Affective-related and cognitive learning were generally the most commonly mentioned areas of learning for both mentees and mentors and skill-based and social networks generally were the domains of least learning for both parties. There were some similar content of learning between the two parties across the four learning domains, for instance increased confidence in the affective-related domain. There were some similar responses between the NHS and the CEPF, for instance, cognitive learning was mentioned in 100% of their mentee interviews. NEPF mentee and mentor responses tended to differ in relation to social networks and skill-based learning from the other two cases too.



**Fig. 10.1** - A summary of the key findings for mentees and mentors from all three case study organisations in relation to research question 1

<p><b>Research question 1: <i>What do mentees and mentors perceive they are learning during their formal mentoring relationships within the three case study organisations?</i></b></p> <p><b>Findings common to all three cases</b></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Both mentees and mentors perceived they were learning within the mentoring relationship, across all four learning domains in all three cases</li> <li>• Mentees discussed more learning than mentors across all three cases</li> <li>• For mentees there seemed to be a similar pattern in relation to the volume of their learning domain responses across all three cases but for mentors only in relation to the NHS and CEPF</li> <li>• Affective related learning was generally the most frequently mentioned by both parties (2 x 1<sup>st</sup> choice and 1 x 2<sup>nd</sup> choice)</li> <li>• For mentees, the cognitive domain was another key area (1<sup>st</sup> and 2<sup>nd</sup> most frequently mentioned)</li> <li>• For mentors, after the affective-domain, responses fluctuated between the other three domains</li> <li>• For mentees and mentors separately and together, there were similar patterns in relation to some of the key learning, in each learning domain, i.e. both parties mentioned they had learnt about the wider organisation (cognitive), developed listening/communication skills (skill-based), developed confidence and self-awareness (affective-related) and new contacts in other departments (social networks)</li> <li>• For mentors, the common thread between the cases in relation to cognitive learning was in relation to knowledge about the mentee and mentoring</li> <li>• Mentees and mentors learnt a variety of different skills during mentoring</li> </ul> <p><b>Findings common to two cases</b></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• NHS and CEPF mentees mentioned cognitive learning in all interviews (not the case for mentors)</li> <li>• Social networks generally created the least amount of learning for both parties within the NHS and the CEPF</li> </ul> <p><b>Findings that were case-specific</b></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• NHS mentees gave their highest response rate from their interviews within cognitive learning</li> <li>• Skill-based learning generated the least amount of responses for NEPF mentees and mentors</li> </ul>
---

Fig. 10.2 shows that responses fluctuated over time within all three cases but remained on a steady increase from the early phase to the final phase within the affective-related domain, for both parties. Confidence was a key area mentioned by both parties within this domain; for mentees in relation to increased self-confidence and for mentors, in relation to their confidence to mentor. Again, for the NHS and CEPF a similar pattern became apparent from the first phase to the final phase for mentor responses but not so for the NEPF. NHS responses (except for mentors cognitive responses) showed a steady increase over time, the CEPF mostly within the early and end phases

and the NEPF within the middle phases (cultivation/separation) for mentors and mostly end phases for mentees.

**Fig. 10.2** - A summary of the key findings for mentees and mentors from all three case study organisations in relation to research question 2

**Research question 2: *How does the learning change over time for both parties, within the three case study organisations?***

**Findings common to all three cases**

- Many of the learning domain responses fluctuated over time within all three cases, with less than half of the learning domains for both mentee and mentor showing a steady increase or steady decrease over time
- There was a similar increase in responses for both mentees and mentors, over time, in relation to the affective-related domain; the number of affective-related learning responses increased steadily over time for mentees but fluctuated throughout for mentors (but increased from first to final phases of the mentoring cycle for mentors)
- Building confidence was most commonly mentioned within the affective-related learning domain and was mentioned at all phases of the mentoring cycle by both parties
- For mentors, two learning domains showed similarity across all three cases; affective-related and social networks, both increasing over time
- When discussing personal changes, responses focussed on the affective-related domain and mentioned confidence and friendship (with mentors focussing more on mentees changes than themselves)

**Findings common to two cases**

- For mentors, the NHS and the CEPF responses showed the same pattern of responses from the first phase to the final phase

**Findings that were case-specific**

- Cognitive learning dominated the NHS mentee responses in all four phases of the mentoring cycle
- NHS mentees and mentors showed a steady increase overall in responses over time (with a particularly high responses for mentees in the redefinition phase)
- CEPF mentees showed generally a higher response rate in the initiation and redefinition phases
- NEPF mentees showed a higher response rate in the separation/redefinition phase but NEPF mentors within the cultivation/separation phase

Fig. 10.3 shows that in relation to the four new moderating factors added in, there were similarities between both parties but they were not all significant factors in all three cases. All three cases mentioned other relationships, similarity and difference as facilitating the mentoring relationships and time as hindering the mentoring relationships. Managers were seen as both facilitating and hindering across the three cases. The two Police cases discussed their managers and HR challenges as mostly hindering, although there was a difference in opinions between the interviews and the

focus groups. In the NHS case, mentees saw their managers as more facilitating and mentors saw them as hindering (although low numbers.). Organisational changes were seen as significantly hindering for the CEPF case and overall, the CEPF mentees and mentors gave more comments about moderating factors than the other two cases.

**Fig. 10.3** - A summary of the key findings for mentees and mentors from all three case study organisations in relation to research question 3

**Research question 3: *What are the factors that moderate mentee and mentor learning during their formal mentoring relationships, within the three case study organisations?***

**Findings common to all three cases**

- All three cases mentioned the four additional moderating factors (other relationships, personal factors, similarity and difference) but not all significantly
- Generally, the trends between mentee and mentors across the three cases were similar except for managers, personal factors and effective matching strategy
- Mentees and mentors perceived other relationships, similarity and difference to be facilitating during their mentoring relationships
- Mentees and mentors discussed that time was a hindering factor in all three cases
- Mentees and mentors responses fluctuated across cases in relation to managers

**Findings common to two cases**

- The Police focus groups produced a mostly hindering response to managers
- Mentee and mentors in both Police cases mentioned HR challenges as hindering

**Findings that were case-specific**

- Effective matching strategy was mentioned by CEPF mentees as helping and CEPF mentors as hindering, but not significantly in the other two cases
- Organisational changes were seen as a significant hindering factor for the CEPF mentees and mentors (and gained a low response within the NHS)
- Mentees from within the CEPF responded with more comments than the other two cases, particularly in areas of managers, time and similarity (mentees) and time and organisational change (mentors)
- NEPF mentees and mentors mentioned the least number of significant moderating factors

Fig. 10.4 shows that mentee responses in relation to time and personal factors, and other relationships and similarity for mentors, in all three cases reduced over time. No factors increased over time in all three cases. Also, mentees responses generally reduced over time within the two Police case studies but mostly increased over time for the NHS mentees. NHS responses were

predominantly positive over time, the CEPF responses became more negative over time and the NEPF responses slowly became more positive over time.

**Fig. 10.4** - A summary of the key findings for mentees and mentors from all three case study organisations in relation to research question 4

**Research question 4: *How do these moderating factors change over time for both parties within the three case study organisations?***

**Findings common to all three cases**

- Mentee responses in all three cases decreased over time in relation to time constraints and personal factors
- Mentors responses in relation to other relationships and similarity decreased over time in all three cases
- No moderating factors had increased responses over time in all three cases

**Findings common to two cases**

- Mentees responses, generally reduced over time in relation to both facilitating and hindering factors, in both Police (CEPF and NEPF) case studies and for the most part mentors too
- For the Police (CEPF and NEPF) mentees and NEPF mentors, all factors decreased over time or the number of responses remained the same but for CEPF mentors some factors increased over time
- HR challenges and time showed a different trend in responses for mentors between the CEPF and the NEPF

**Findings that were case-specific**

- The NHS had the majority of responses by factor that increased over time
- The NHS mentees and mentors gave more responses within the cultivation and redefinition phases
- The NHS mentee and mentor responses were predominantly positive over time (except time constraints)
- CEPF mentees showed overall a higher response rate in the initiation and redefinition phases but CEPF mentors showed an overall higher response rate in the final two phases of the mentoring cycle (separation and redefinition)
- CEPF mentee and mentor responses started more positively but in the later phases of the mentoring cycle, became predominantly more negative (particularly in the areas of HR challenges and organisational change)
- The NEPF responses in relation to moderating factors were highest in the first two phases of the mentoring cycle but decreased over time for both mentees and mentors
- NEPF mentee responses were mostly negative throughout and for mentors slowly became increasingly positive over time

Section V will discuss the key findings within Fig. 10.1 to 10.4 in more detail and will also discuss the limitations of this study (chapter 11). Conclusions and ideas for future research are then discussed (chapter 12).

## **SECTION V – DISCUSSION AND CONCLUSIONS**

This section will discuss the most significant findings from chapters 7, 8, 9 and 10 together with the key theory discussed in chapter 2, 3, 4 and 5 against the four research questions (chapter 11). Conclusions will also be made in relation to the contribution to knowledge that this study has created both theoretically and practically (chapter 12), together with some suggestions for future research.

## Chapter 11 - Discussion

### **11.1 Research question 1 - *What do mentees and mentors perceive they are learning during formal mentoring relationships?***

#### ***11.1.1 Both parties learn in all four learning domains.***

This study shows that both mentees and mentors perceived they were learning within the mentoring relationship. This supports the notion that learning is a social activity (Wenger, 1999; Garvey et al., 2014) and that mentoring supports learning and development to happen (Parsloe & Wray, 2004; Garvey, 2014). This is an important observation, as it reinforces mentoring as an important learning and development (L&D) intervention and helps to set mentoring apart from other L&D interventions which do not necessarily create a two-way process for learning, for instance within a more teacher to learner one-way relationship, within training and potentially on-the-job coaching. This is an important finding for academics because there are still few studies that investigate the learning and benefits for both parties. It is known that mentees benefit but not how much mentors can benefit too. Calls have been made to address this (Wanberg et al., 2003; Philip & Hendry, 2000; Allen, 2007; Lankau & Scandura, 2007; Ragins & Kram, 2007; Allen et al., 2008; Chun et al., 2012; St-Jean & Audet, 2012; Garvey, 2014) and this study has done so.

This is also important information for HRD practitioners as the clearer they can be about who and what can be gained from mentoring, the more they may be able to ensure it is the right learning and development tool to 'sell' to senior management levels (Bosworth et al., 1993). As previously stated, investment in human capital is costly, therefore senior managers/leaders are keen to ensure their L&D budgets are spent wisely. Investing in the right learning and development interventions will ultimately increase individual and organisational productivity levels (Lipsey & Chrystal, 2015) and creativity in the workplace (Boud & Garrick, 1999).

There have been many calls to clarify the content of learning further (Hezlett & Gibson, 2005; Lankau & Scandura, 2007; Chun et al., 2012) and this study has shown that both mentees and

mentors learnt across all four learning domains. This goes against St. Jean & Audet's (2012) study whereby they stated that only cognitive and affective-related learning was achieved through mentoring, not skill-based learning. Bloom (1956) made the point that if learning was approached from more than one domain, the learning would be retained better. Some learning domains have elicited more responses than others, but still as a group of mentees and mentors responses were made in all four areas.

The comparison table (Table 10.1) shows that the two most commonly mentioned learning domains for mentees were the affective-related and cognitive domain. For mentors this was the affective-related and skill-based domain for the NHS and CEPF cases (discussed later in 11.2.5) but the cognitive and affective-related domain for the NEPF (as with mentees). Both parties made far fewer comments about the social network domain, in all three cases. It is interesting to see that generally mentees and mentors feel that the majority and the least of their learning has been within the same learning domains. These results suggest that there is nothing directly different about the learning for both parties.

This is an important finding as it challenges the Wanberg et al. (2003) model (Fig 1.1) whereby these four learning domains are listed as proximal outcomes for 'protégé change' only but are not listed as outcomes for mentors. In fact, mentor outcomes are only noted in the distal outcomes section of this model, with no further detail. This model has been amended in the light of these findings and is shown in chapter 12.

It has been established that there is nothing directly different about the learning for both parties, but there has been a difference in relation to the amount of comments made. Mentees generally commented on more learning in most learning domains than mentors: NHS mentees made 18 more comments overall than their mentors (but one mentor was unavailable for two interviews); for CEPF 66 more (yet there were four more mentor interviews than mentee interviews) and for NEPF 110 more (although there were 44 more mentees in attendance across all 12 focus groups.) This may be associated with there being a greater expectation of mentees to learn in this relationship and

hence an increased awareness when asked in the follow up interviews. Or that it takes time for mentors to reflect and realise their own learning, when their primary focus is on the learning of their mentees (Chao, 1997.)

It is interesting to note that although the volume of responses were different between mentees and mentors and the priority of some of the learning domains may have been different, the content of learning was similar in some key aspects (Table 10.2). Mentees in all three cases mentioned learning about the wider organisation and mentors in two cases did too. Mentors mentioned developing listening/communication skills as well as reflection skills and these were aspects mentioned by mentors too. It would be expected that mentors would develop these skills as they are key skills of mentoring but this would not necessarily be an expectation for mentees; perhaps this links to the idea of mentors role modelling certain behaviours to mentees and in turn, mentees observing and starting to replicate this (Barbulescu, 2005).

One of the outstanding questions within mentoring is whether women mentees (and indeed mentors) can achieve the same (career) outcomes as men through mentoring (Hezlett & Gibson, 2005). This was not the focus of the study (although there is recognition that all mentees and mentors in CEPF were women) nor has it been determined by this study. However, through this study it can be seen that men and women, as both mentees and mentors and however they are paired up, do learn within the same domains.

This finding is important, as discovering what mentees and mentors learn across all four learning domains helps to confirm what we already know about mentees learning but also answers calls to understand what mentors can learn throughout the mentoring process too. This research reinforces the idea of mentoring being a process of mutual growth (Megginson et al., 2006), and gives new insights into the content of learning for both parties. In times of significant pressure and change within the public sector (Meaklim & Sims, 2011; Cribb et al., 2014) and increased accountability for ever tightening budgets, finding a learning and development solution that has benefits for both parties involved helps to ensure a greater return on the investment for the senior management



budget holders. Also, recognising that the public sector is investing in the learning and development of its managers and leaders to cope with these changing times (Snell, 2009; Meaklim & Sims, 2011), and as (in this study) mentors tend to more likely be leaders and managers, mentoring could be a way of involving them more directly with the workforce and so, developing their awareness of others (and themselves) towards better leadership skills for the future.

### ***11.1.2. Mentoring develops confidence.***

Wenger (1999) argues that learning is not just about acquiring new knowledge and information but is about ‘becoming’ and forming an identity for ourselves. Rylatt (2001) agrees that learning in the workplace must go beyond technical job skills. Affective-related learning is the highest (CEPF and NEPF) or second highest area (NHS) for comment by mentees and similarly for mentors: the highest area (NHS, CEPF) or second highest (NEPF). Looking at the content of learning within this domain, it was similar for both mentees and mentors in relation to confidence, self-awareness, positivity and drive/motivation. When asked about change in the latter phases of the mentoring cycle through the NHS interviews and the CEPF and the NEPF focus groups, affective-related learning was the most mentioned. Comments were made by mentee and mentors in all three organisations in these key areas, but the overwhelming majority of comments were made about increased confidence, for both parties. For mentees comments on confidence were made in relation to building their confidence in themselves and their ability to do their job but for mentors this was mainly in the area of building their confidence to mentor initially and then self-confidence within the workplace later. Eraut (2007) states that confidence has an overwhelming impact on workplace learning, so it makes sense to assume that as mentees were developing their confidence through mentoring, they were also enhancing their learning in other areas too.

Affective-related learning comments are highest for both mentees and mentors in the CEPF organisation. Bearing in mind that this mentoring programme was aimed at developing women and that an often touted factor that restricts women in the workplace is their self-confidence, it makes sense that this would be a key area for comment within CEPF. This is an interesting finding in relation to the ‘bubbling diversity of change’ (Giddons & Sutton, 2013) suggesting that mentoring

could be a key way to encourage more women to develop an increased confidence in their abilities, in the workplace. This could then help to create a more equal workplace whereby they can bypass their own 'sticky floor' (Shambaugh, 2007) and create more opportunities for themselves to progress through the traditionally restricting hierarchical structures (Gingrich, 2014) well known within the public sector.

This finding has highlighted the distinction between mentoring and other formal L&D interventions offered (such as traditional structured training sessions). Traditionally on-the-job coaching and training are generally directed at increasing knowledge and skill levels in the workplace, whereas this research demonstrates that mentoring goes beyond these domains and into the more personal affective-related domain. Once the emotional bond is established through strong tie mentoring relationships and high levels of trust are developed (more in section 11.2.2), the stronger and more intimate the relationship becomes, and so the relationship opens up to learning beyond the cognitive and skill-based levels.

In short, this finding demonstrates the impact of mentoring on confidence and reinforces the emotional bond that can be developed through mentoring over time (Hunt & Weintraub, 2011; Garvey, 2014) which is not necessarily developed from other L&D practices. This finding is an important reminder to senior managers and leaders, that if they wish to develop their human capital from within the individual (Rogers, 1969), then mentoring could be an appropriate tool to do this, especially as there seems to be a direct link between self-confidence and improved ability/motivation to do the job well.

### ***11.1.3 Mentoring develops wider knowledge.***

Learning is the process of creating knowledge (Kolb, 1984) and gaining knowledge and expertise (Knowles et al., 2015). Cognitive learning was mentioned in 100% of mentee interviews in both the NHS and CEPF. It was the most commonly mentioned area for learning (NHS and NEPF) and the second highest area of learning (CEPF) for mentees but fluctuated between the three organisations

in relation to mentor comments: the highest (NEPF) and the third highest (NHS and CEPF).

Although the amount of responses fluctuated, typically the common focus between the two parties was about gaining a wider knowledge of the organisation. Access to new and wider knowledge is not always easy to acquire when budgets are tighter, workload is larger, organisational structures are restrictive and opportunities for individuals to work elsewhere are limited, especially in the public sector. For mentees within the NHS case study this included more comments on practical support towards studying their qualification, for those with restricted promotional avenues within CEPF the focus was in relation to practical information about promotion and for those looking to progress within NEPF, the opportunity to learn more about L&D opportunities. This shows how the knowledge gained is directly aligned to the expectations and purpose of the programme and demonstrates the importance of focus and clarity from the start within mentoring. This is an important finding for leaders and managers who may be considering the use of mentoring programmes, to ensure that the focus and the expectations are clear, so that the knowledge gained is relevant to individual and organisational goals. Having a clear baseline to start with, will allow proper evaluation at the relationship, programme and organisational level (Megginson & Clutterbuck, 2005) and will help to reassure that the L&D budget is well spent.

For mentors, there was learning about the wider organisation (certainly for the first two organisations, NHS and CEPF) but the common thread between the cases in relation to cognitive learning for mentors was in relation to knowledge about the mentee and mentoring. Compared to mentees, there were fewer comments made about the wider organisation; perhaps the assumption is that as they were already in higher levels they would have a wider view anyway, so their improved knowledge was focused on their mentoring and mentees instead.

This is an important finding as it demonstrates another advantage of mentoring over other traditional L&D methods where there tends to be a power-distance relationship with the all-knowing expert, 'sage on the stage.' Whereas the mentor is the 'guide on the side' (Zachary, 2000, p. 3) who is learning alongside the mentee too. Also, on-the-job coaches and trainers generally work within the short-term towards developing a particular task, skill or job related activity and so

do not necessarily develop some of the additional knowledge about their learners or themselves, as some mentors in this study reported that they did. This may also be key to breaking down some of the barriers within the employment relationship, i.e. between work and employer/manager, whereby workers within the lower levels can find out more about what goes on from managers in higher levels, and in return managers can develop their knowledge of what goes on at the worker level. The suggestion from these findings is that both parties can find out more about what others do and how what they do connects with others. This may help to lead towards better communication and involvement with each other and so help to break down some of the rigid boundaries between managers and departments, and in turn transform the social structures of the workplace (Wenger, 1999). In short, this finding suggests that mentoring could help to break through some of the rigid workplace structures, allow organisational knowledge to be shared and in doing so, potentially help to create a more flexible yet equal workplace.

#### ***11.1.4 Mentoring develops different skills.***

There is an expectation that skills will be developed through mentoring, as mentoring is considered to be one of the fastest growing ways of developing skills and talent (Clutterbuck, 2015; CIPD, 2015). This is contrary to the St-Jean & Audet study (2012) which reported no skill based learning for their mentees in an entrepreneurial context. Within this doctoral study, skill-based learning is mentioned less than affective-related and cognitive learning for mentees but fluctuates for mentors, between second highest (NHS and CEPF) and lowest (NEPF) comments. Comments for mentees seem to show a direct link between the knowledge gained (cognitive) and the skills gained. For instance, the CEPF mentoring programme was aimed at supporting more women into senior positions, so a wider knowledge of the promotional opportunities available, and the interview skills to support that, seem to work together well.

Also for the CEPF programme, which was aimed at women supporting women, it is interesting to note (in Table 10.2) that coping with stress and work life balance skills are mentioned here but not in the other two case study organisations. Perhaps this is an aspect that is more pertinent to women

and again helps to clarify that the key skills developed by mentees are directly related to the purpose of the mentoring programme. Again, this highlights where mentoring may be an appropriate method towards supporting women's issues within the workplace. Helping to support and address their work-life balance concerns may help to create a more even starting point for women to progress in the workplace.

Other skills developed by mentees were in relation to communication skills/listening skills and reflection skills across all three case study organisations. Reflection was apparent and is a key element of the experiential learning cycle (Kolb, 1984; Boud et al., 1985), transformational learning (Mezirow, 1991) and transformative learning (Daloz, 2012), so there is an expectation that mentees will develop these skills as they critically reflect on their new experiences and apply new meaning to them.

For mentors, the skills-based domain for the NHS and CEPF cases was the second most commonly mentioned domain but the least mentioned for NEPF (discussed later). Mentors perceived they had learnt new skills mostly associated with mentoring skills: questioning, listening, supporting and developing patience. This supports the argument again in relation to mentoring and other L&D interventions, as the skills that the mentors are honing and tailoring to the needs of their different mentees are not necessarily targeted by trainers whilst training. Interesting though, unlike mentees, mentors do not mention that they are developing their reflection skills in two cases (NHS and CEPF), yet there might be an expectation that if they are developing these skills in others, they are sub-consciously developing them for themselves, so the learning is realised later. Or perhaps this relates to fewer comments made by mentors overall about their learning, mentioned earlier (Chao, 1997), as they have yet to fully develop or realise their skills of reflection to appreciate exactly what they have learnt. Assumptions made about the possible connections between the NHS and the CEPF case studies are discussed later in this chapter.

It is interesting to see that both NHS mentees and mentors increasingly discuss developing skills over time; perhaps this relates to the healthcare profession and the cultural recognition that as part

of their profession they are expected to be reflective practitioners, hence there is always room for improvement in their skills. It is also interesting to reiterate that for the NEPF case study, the skill-based responses are the lowest; perhaps there is a cultural reticence (Waddington, 2006) in the Police focus groups with other colleagues of the same level or rank to share directly any skills they may have developed, for fear of suggesting they were not skilled enough in the first place. If so, this suggests that organisational cultural aspects may have an influence on whether skills are declared, or perhaps even recognised, by both parties. This connects to the restrictions imposed by the traditionally rigid hierarchal structures and the 'cult of masculinity' (Waddington, 2006) within the Police, where it may not be comfortable to suggest, when you are in a more senior position among colleagues, that you are not skilled in everything in relation to your job. This was not the case for the CEPF group but the majority of comments for this group were made in one to one interviews and not with groups of colleagues, as with the NEPF groups.

Mentees' skill-based comments never reached the high levels of response that the cognitive and affective-related domains did. Perhaps mentees considered they are skilled within the job role and so do not necessarily need direct support to develop their skills and in any case, this would be limited in a number of one hour mentoring sessions. None of these mentees in all three cases was considered to be unable to do their job, they were all considered to be talented and ready for progression, so perhaps the skills aspects were not a major focus for this group.

In short, this is an important finding as it suggests that the primary focus of mentoring is not developing skills. If there was a need to target specific skills, this is where on-the-job coaching or training would have an advantage over mentoring, as time can be spent developing a particular skill, by a skilled expert. As previously mentioned, mentors are not expected to be expert in any particular skills to pass down to mentees, but to concentrate their efforts on supporting, challenging and providing vision (Daloz, 2012). This is an important finding for leaders, managers and HRD Practitioners as it helps to confirm the key expectations from a mentoring programme; that of developing increased knowledge and increased confidence and less so directly skills. This again

could help the senior management budget holders to ensure their money is spent on the right L&D intervention for the right, positive outcome (Khan, 2014).

#### ***11.1.5 Social networks generally created the least amount of learning.***

Garvey (2014) suggests that the key benefits of mentoring include improved knowledge, skills, confidence and well-being for mentees and for mentor's knowledge, skills and self-awareness but he does not mention improved social networks for either party. In this study, social networks were mentioned for both parties but they did create the fewest comments (either third or fourth lowest in both parties' comments). Previous studies have shown that mentees generally do not expect to learn through mentors' contacts (Jones, 2012) but although only a small number of comments were made, mentees state they had been grateful for the new contacts, the opportunity to connect with other departments and to have development opportunities created for them, through their mentors. Mentors perceived they had gained an increased awareness of how helpful their contacts were and also pursued some additional contacts for their own future use, but did not readily say that they achieved learning directly from mentees' networks.

An often touted outcome of mentoring for women is to gain access to otherwise difficult to access networks (Wanberg et al., 2003) to move beyond the 'glass ceiling' (Gibson, 2004) in today's organisations. However, the results of this study did not seem to bring the amount of new networks within the women's only programme in the CEPF that may have been expected. Perhaps this is to do with more senior women not having a huge amount of access to higher level networks themselves and so unable to share them, as much as perhaps their male counterparts could. Although for the NHS and NEPF mixed gender dyads, this had the same low outcome, so it may not be anything particular to women mentors.

This is an important finding as although Wanberg et al. (2003) suggested that social networks were a learning domain, this research study shows them to be less significant for the mentees and mentors within these organisations, compared to the other learning domains. If the sharing of networks is an important aspect for development and progression, then these results suggest that

mentoring is not the most efficient way to achieve this. However, recognising that networks are still often key to moving on and through the often rigid hierarchical structures within the public sector, perhaps how to develop an L&D intervention to disseminate these is an area for future research.

## **11.2 Research question 2 - *How does the learning change over time for both parties?***

### ***11.2.1 Affective-related learning increases over time.***

Many of the learning domain responses fluctuated over time within all three cases, with less than half of the learning domains for both mentee and mentor showing a steady increase or steady decrease over time (Table 10.3). However, it is interesting to see that one of the most frequently mentioned areas of learning, the affective-related domain, increased steadily over time for mentees but fluctuated for mentors throughout, but did increase from the first phase to the final phase for mentors too. For mentees, not only do the number of responses increase over time but also the intensity of this learning seems to change over time too (% responses generally doubled from phase 3 to phase 4). An example in relation to responses about change within the CEPF latter interviews, showed movement from self-awareness, mentees saying they feel valued, more comfortable (interview 2), to then saying they feel more positive at work, they have the control back (interview 3) and then saying they feel more open and clearer about their goals now (interview 4). This shows a progression from self-awareness, to self-belief to action. The support and challenge model (Connor & Pokora, 2012; Daloz, 2012) and the model of pedagogical and andragogical relationships (Pratt, 1988) may go some way to explain this; as mentees move from feeling highly supported and comfortable, where their confidence grows, they move towards the need to be more challenged and less supported, so ultimately become more independent over time.

This is an important finding as it may suggest that only through challenge does the affective-related learning increase. This connects directly with transformative learning (Mezirow, 1991) as this will not occur without critical reflection (Daloz, 2012). For instance, as mentees are supported to develop their reflective skills, they then start to challenge themselves more deeply through critical



reflection, address any 'disorientating dilemmas' (Dochy et al., 2011, p. 43) and realise the need for inner, deeper change. Or perhaps this relates to the 'slow burn' of mentoring whereby the knowledge and skills need to be realised first which are the more tangible, shorter term, initial expectations of the mentoring programme (achieved through high support early on), before the affective-related domain can become more obvious or dominant (through more challenge.) For mentors, their affective-related learning responses fluctuate, although do increase from the first to final phase, which suggests that mentors do gain inner, deeper affective-related learning throughout the mentoring relationship but that this does not necessarily follow a steadily increasing pattern, as it does for mentees. However, comments do increase in the latter phase for mentors too which suggests that self-doubt is decreasing for them over time and this will ultimately have an effect on their perceived ability to mentor and inspire others in the workplace. Perhaps the forgetting curve (Ebbinghaus, 1987) and emotional intelligence theory (Goleman, 1996) helps to explain why generally affective-related comments increase over time. As previously stated, the neo-cortex brain learns and assimilates information quickly, so the cognitive and skill-based learning is remembered and commented upon earlier but the emotional brain takes time to embed and create habit change, so related comments take longer to surface. This links with the notion that attitudes are learnt through involvement with other people (Gagne, 1972), so as mentees' involvement with mentors, and vice versa, develops over time, it makes sense to suggest that the number of affective-related learning comments will change/increase too.

These findings are important because as a result of the above, they have helped to create a new model, discussed in the conclusions, in relation to learning intensity and support and challenge. These results also show what could be achieved over time, through longer term L&D opportunities. With tighter L&D budgets, it may be tempting to deliver a 'quick fix' L&D intervention and hope for longer term results, which may not materialise over time, as opposed to investing in a longer term mentoring programme, which could potentially create greater learning intensity and deeper, longer term benefits for all those involved over time. This highlights the need for senior managers to think carefully about what learning outcomes they want to achieve for the individual and the organisation in the longer term, before committing the L&D budget.

### *11.2.2 Confidence increases over time for both parties.*

It is important to note that developing an increased confidence was mentioned by both mentees and mentors at all phases of the mentoring cycle. For mentees, this was directed at their ability and self-belief to do their job well but for mentors this was more so in relation to confidence to mentor, although in the latter phases related to their confidence towards their job and their future. As mentioned for the CEPF earlier, the comments on confidence changed over time too, with the initial comments raising awareness of their confidence levels, leading to building more confidence, then onto an improved self-belief and increased positivity. This shows how the learning intensity in relation to confidence increased over time and the same can be said for comments on motivation levels and positivity. The suggestion is that as trust in the relationship develops and the relationship becomes more comfortable and friendly, the mentee feels able to be less supported and more challenged on more personal areas. As Zachary (2012) suggests, the level of learning increases commensurate with the level of trust. This connects with transformational learning theory too, whereby critical reflection leads to new perspectives and action (Dochy et al., 2011) with the recognition that this takes time to develop.

For mentors, as they are developing the confidence in others, the suggestion is that they may be aware that they are developing the confidence in themselves. Initially, their comments on self-confidence tended to be about their confidence to mentor but as they established an ability to do this over time, they then turned their attention to their confidence within their own role. This is a good example of how when a certain amount of learning is gained, that this learning can then be transferred for good affect beyond the initial boundaries of mentoring, as found in Hezlett's (2005) study whereby mentoring was a catalyst for other benefits beyond mentoring.

Eraut's (2007) studies showed that confidence has an overwhelming influence on learning in the workplace. So if confidence levels are low, this may affect the learner's openness to learning. However, if mentoring increases confidence, then perhaps this is a good reason to push and pursue

mentoring interventions in the workplace, as once confidence is increased, the learner takes more control (Knowles et al., 2015), then learning interventions become more effective.

Kram (1988) also discusses how psychosocial functions including friendship tend to emerge later on in the cultivation phase of the mentoring relationships and this research seems to have shown this too. Strong tie relationships have been described as friendships that exhibit the highest levels of trust and promote a higher level of intimacy (Barbulescu, 2005). The suggestion is that these mentoring relationships were strong tie relationships, so once trust had been established in the earlier phases, then the benefits began to flow (Brass, 2001). This is an important finding as it has highlighted the component of trust which has been added to the model discussed in the next chapter as well.

This is an important finding in relation to the public sector nature of the case study organisations too. It has been suggested that trust within the public sector particularly in relation to senior managers has been declining, and in fact, Young & Daniel (2003) state there is an escalating cycle of distrust within the public sector. Notwithstanding the argument that distrust is long lasting and cannot be rectified by improved communication alone (Pate et al., 2007), mentoring could be one way of attempting to build some of the trust back between worker and employer/manager levels. Pate et al (2007) through their longitudinal study of two public sector organisations determined that public sector employees do not have faith in their supervisors i.e. their manager's attitudes and behaviours are not sincere and honest. Honesty and integrity are key behaviours expected of mentors. Managers who act as mentors would be expected to demonstrate these characteristics, they would be reinforced through the mentor training and as such mentoring would provide them the opportunity to display these. Also, if employees do not trust their managers, once they establish an effective mentoring relationship with an alternative manager as their mentor, they will begin to trust them and indirectly, this may help to show employees that (some) managers can be trusted. Also, as mentors are learning as well as mentees through mentoring, perhaps a heightened self-awareness from working with the mentees and getting a sense of the workplace issues that mistrust

creates, may help managers gain new insights and reconsider their attitudes and behaviours towards others in the workplace too.

### ***11.2.3 Cognitive and skill-based learning fluctuates over time.***

These results suggest that new organisational knowledge is not a continuing aspect of the mentoring discussions; it decreases over time for the CEPF and NEPF mentees and for the NHS and CEPF mentors. Perhaps this suggests that information about the wider organisation is shared by mentors initially as it helps to establish the credibility of the mentor early on through sharing their full knowledge and experience from within the organisation and it is a safe place to start for both parties. It is also not too intimidating for the mentee nor the mentor, as a starting point to build rapport before drilling down to much more challenging areas. This suggests that once the early knowledge is gained (in the neo-cortex of the brain), this makes way for a deeper more personalised discussion with the mentee which then begins to unlock some of the affective-related domain (through the emotional brain). If this is the case, it is difficult to explain why this has not been the case within the NHS for mentees and the NEPF for mentors. Perhaps in these scenarios there is a later focus on revisiting the knowledge, for example within the NEPF, newer higher level knowledge about learning opportunities evolves over time and so is shared later on too.

Once the cognitive learning had been established, it seems clear that the skills were the next area of focus within the mentoring discussions. It is perhaps expected that mentoring would give mentees increased skills over time to put them in a better position when studying, moving up and moving on. Mentees' responses for the NHS and NEPF increased over time but it is interesting to see that for the CEPF mentee skills responses remained the same from the first to the final phase and mentor responses increased over time for NHS and CEPF mentors but not the NEPF mentors. This is counter to the idea that skills should increase over time; perhaps the NEPF mentors feel they have now honed their mentoring skills and do not necessarily see them continuing to improve through mentoring skills or perhaps there has been a shift of focus towards the inner reflections, linking to the affective-related domain and a move away over time from a discussion of their more tangible skills.

This is an important finding as, in part, it agrees with Goleman's (1996) order of events for learning, that knowledge and skills are learnt more quickly (and therefore earlier) but that emotional learning, for instance the deeper, affective-related learning takes longer (and therefore is realised later). Although these results are not as clear cut as that, as responses in relation to knowledge and skills learning seem to prevail over time too, the results do show that emotional learning/affective-related learning increases over time more. Perhaps the repetitive nature of meeting up and reinforcing learning through mentoring (Parsloe & Wray, 2004) is helping to keep the volume of responses high within the cognitive and skill-based domain as the neo-cortex of the brain is being regularly reminded about the early learning. Again, as this learning seems to prevail over time, this supports the notion of the longer term benefits or 'longer term burn' achieved through mentoring. Ebbinghaus' (1987) forgetting curve suggested that 90% of what is learnt in a formal classroom situation is forgotten within 30 days and 60% after 1 hour, but if this learning is revisited every 30 days/month in the mentoring relationship, then this learning is less likely to be forgotten and more likely to be transferred back into the workplace, beyond the 10-20% suggested by Harrison (1998). Again, an example to the senior management budget holders that the L&D budget could well be better spent on mentoring.

***11.2.4 Social networks created the fewest responses at all phases but showed an increasing trend for mentors in all three cases.***

It is interesting to see that mentee responses in relation to social networks are low but do increase over time (except for CEPF mentees, which have been previously discussed in 11.1.5). Perhaps this increase was due to the fact that the earlier connections had started to materialise and/or that mentors have actively sought additional projects and additional development opportunities for their CEPF mentees but these have taken time. Or perhaps mentors have taken time to get to know their mentees, to ensure they are ready to benefit from these, or taken time to feel comfortable enough to trust and recommend their mentee and/or the opportunities have taken time to come through. Although generally comments about social networks were low but at their highest for the NEPF

mentees (and mentors), these findings suggest that where development opportunities are restricted (for NEPF), mentors' networks may become even more important for mentees.

For mentors, in all three case study organisations and in all phases, responses in relation to social networks remained low too but nonetheless, did increase over time in all three cases. Perhaps this was because mentees were within a lower level or rank, or were in a completely different area from which they would normally operate or perhaps they did not want to take advantage of the relationship established with them, or perhaps they already had these connections or even perhaps this is because the mentors tended to have influence within their own area of expertise, and so did not need to pursue connections elsewhere. However, mentor comments do increase over time in this area but their responses suggest this is mainly due to their ongoing increased awareness of their own networks and so mentoring has acted as a prompt to themselves to pursue further networks. This is an important finding as it links loosely to the notion of connectivism (Siemens, 2005; Deubel, 2006) whereby we can learn through knowing where to look for the answers (but in relation to mentoring, not necessarily technologically) and so do not necessarily have to have them ourselves or need to regularly access them. This links to a comment made earlier (11.1.5) that if the intention is to break down barriers in relation to personal/social networks within the public sector hierarchical structures beyond the mentoring relationships, then mentoring may not be the most effective way to achieve this.

#### ***11.2.5 NHS and the CEPF mentors showed the same pattern of responses.***

For mentors within the first two cases (NHS and CEPF) the pattern of their learning domain responses was the same, for instance the affective-related domain had the same highest response rate, but also the decreasing and increasing responses from the first to the final phase are the same: cognitive decreasing, skill-based increasing, affective-related increasing and social networks increasing. This was not the same for the NHS and CEPF mentees together nor the NEPF case study. It is difficult to confirm why these two cases would have similar mentor responses, and not the NEPF, as although the NHS and the CEPF are both public sector organisations, more similarity might be expected between the two Police case study organisations, CEPF and NEPF. However,

referring to the comparison table in Appendix V, the greater similarity between the NHS and CEPF cases is highlighted/shaded. This table shows that both organisations had similar pressures: budget cuts, restructuring, low morale, high workload and were experiencing imposed changes. Although the NEPF case study was going through small scale change, there was no imposed large scale change programme, less pressure on budgets and workload, and morale was considered to be higher. Therefore, perhaps the fact that both the NHS and the CEPF mentors were experiencing organisational change at the time restricted mentors opportunities to develop their cognitive skills further and so they reflected more on developing skills, confidence and additional social networks to survive the organisational climate. Whereas for the NEPF case study, mentors' cognitive skill comments increased as there was more opportunity for this to be developed over time as new opportunities were arising, yet skill-based comments decreases as an assumption could be made that their mentoring skills were established earlier and were not a focus of later learning for mentors or that they did not want to declare any skills gaps in front of others (mentioned earlier).

This is an important finding as it suggests that despite being similar by name, type of organisation and organisational culture, plus having the same design/delivery of the mentoring programme, the pattern of learning responses over time were not necessarily similar within the two Police studies (CEPF and NEPF). These findings suggest that perhaps similarity in other ways i.e. organisational challenges has the greater influence on similarity of learning or that other factors are more dominant than the organisational type and culture that shape the learning within specific domains.

The discussion of moderating factors next may help to show what other factors are important facilitating or hindering factors too. The extent to which the organisational type and culture can have an impact on mentoring relationships still remains an interesting area for further research.

### **11.3 Research question 3 - *What are the factors that moderate mentee and mentor learning during their formal mentoring relationships?***

#### ***11.3.1 Four additional moderating factors have been added.***

Generally, mentees and mentors from all three organisations discussed that there were nine significant moderating factors that were either facilitating or hindering their mentoring relationships (Table 10.4). This demonstrates that aspects of the mentoring context do have an important impact on learning (Kram, 1988; Daloz, 2012). Five of these were from Hegstad and Wentling's (2005) original research but four new significant moderating factors have been uncovered: other relationships, personal factors, similarity and difference. Responses from mentees showed that three of the new moderating factors were facilitating factors in all three cases: other relationships, similarity and difference, but that time (an original and established moderating factor) was a hindering factor in all three cases for mentees (and mentors) too. In addition, HR challenges were hindering for both mentees and mentors in the two Police cases only.

For mentors, their responses were also predominantly showing that other relationships, similarity and difference were facilitating factors within the mentoring relationship but that time and personal factors (the other new moderating factor) were hindering. Eddy et al. (2005) discussed how personal factors impacted the effectiveness of mentoring programmes and suggests that timing is key, if mentees/mentors are having significant personal issues, then perhaps mentoring is not right for them at the moment or perhaps if they are, then mentoring is right for them, to re-develop their confidence and challenge them to think beyond this? In addition, organisational changes were hindering within the NHS and CEPF only.

Three of the significant moderating factors did not have a common thread between mentees and mentors: managers, personal factors and effective matching strategy. For the NHS and the CEPF mentees, they predominantly stated that managers were facilitating within the interviews but hindering within the CEPF focus groups and the NEPF focus groups too. The responses were also dissimilar for mentors in respect of managers with NHS mentors saying they were hindering



(contrary to mentees previously) and with CEPF focus groups giving a similar response but CEPF interviews stating they were facilitative. The NEPF mentors stated that managers were both equally facilitating and hindering. Also for mentees within personal factors, within the NHS and CEPF they were predominantly hindering factors but with NEPF mentees answering equally. For mentors, there was consistency between all three cases that personal factors were hindering. Also, CEPF discussed that the matching strategy was effective but CEPF mentors felt it was hindering.

Kram (1988) encourages us to look at how the organisational context (larger system) influences developmental relationships (smaller system) and the functions that are provided within them. For the NHS study, only five key areas of organisational context were considered to be significant when both party responses were combined. However, only four of these NHS factors were considered to be significant facilitating or hindering factors in the two Police studies too, not other relationships (although mentioned, they were not considered significant). Within the Police studies, there were other common facilitating and hindering factors added that were more significant to both Police cases but not the NHS: HR challenges, organisational changes and personal factors. The NHS did mention organisational changes and personal factors too but not significantly. It is interesting to note that no additional significant moderating factors were added by the final case study organisation (NEPF); perhaps this suggests now that these are the most significant moderating factors for mentoring relationships within these two differing workplaces. Alternatively, these findings also show that there are factors which are not common between these organisations and so suggests it is not possible to predict what is common for all.

These findings challenge Kram's (1988) open systems model which does not cover any of these significant moderating factors and again challenges the Wanberg et al. (2003) model whereby 'organizational context' lists some example factors, organisational culture, support for mentoring, developmental networks and opportunities, as external factors but does not list some of the other more significant factors that this doctoral study has uncovered, for instance time, managers, personal factors, organisational change, similarity and difference. This is an important finding as Wanberg et al. do mention there are 'black box' gaps in terms of what factors contribute or not to

formal mentoring, so this research has helped to clarify this further. The suggestion is that these more significant factors should now be added to Hegstad and Wentling (2005) and Kram's model as stronger examples.

These findings reiterate the importance of managers within mentoring as either gatekeepers to allowing their employees to get involved or getting involved in mentoring themselves (discussed later). Back to the widespread nature of distrust in the public sector (Pate et al., 2007), again getting the right managers more involved in mentoring could help slowly to create a shift towards encouraging the right potential managers in the workplace. This in turn may help to affect the leadership culture in the workplace (Meaklim & Sims, 2011). However, managers who do not allow mentees or mentors to get involved are doing nothing to dispel the mistrust of managers in the workplace. These findings also highlight the importance of the additional moderating factors; other relationships, personal factors, similarity and difference which demonstrate the important influence of other relationships inside and outside the workplace, beyond managers, which help to ensure 'belonging' (Wenger, 1999) when managers may not.

### ***11.3.2 The importance of other relationships in mentoring.***

Other relationships was a new additional moderating factor but was significant for mentees and mentors in the NHS only but when the less significant responses from mentees and mentors have been added, this came through as a facilitative factor for the other two cases too. The key question is why are other relationships so significant within the NHS and not the other two Police organisations? Perhaps this has something to do with the NHS task/networked (Handy, 1991) culture where employees work more within a team focussed environment, such as on a ward but interacting with other crucial areas, for instance Accident & Emergency and surgery, so are more aware of the networks of relationships that support them. Hegstad and Wentling (2005) suggested that a team focused environment would be an enabling factor within learning. It could also be that as both mentees and mentors were typically studying a qualification they were more acutely aware of other supporting people with common goals and values, namely the tutors, the librarians, other studying colleagues and additionally for mentors, the mentoring trainer and other mentors too.

Perhaps in the other two (Police) organisations, mentees and mentors are more self-sufficient, and so do not look for others for support readily and/or this could be something to do with the culture, the NHS employees being able to ask others for help as opposed to Police employees who feel they need to have all the answers and so do not want to look exposed if asking others. Perhaps the role/person culture (Silvestri, 2003) and hierarchical nature of the Police does not cultivate a multiple relationship approach to working nor personal development, and so for this reason did to illicit a huge number of comments.

Many authors (Kram, 1988; McCauley & Young, 1993; Higgins & Kram, 2001; Clutterbuck & Megginson, 2004; Garvey et al., 2009; Jones, 2009) have suggested that people are part of a wider network at work and so have a number of developmental relationships that help to maximise their personal development. It is interesting to note that the NHS comments on other relationships involved mostly others from inside the organisation but for the Police organisations their other relationships tended to involve those outside of the organisation: family, friends, previous colleagues. It is interesting to see that the Police tend to look outside the organisation for additional relationship support. Again, perhaps this has something to do with the Police culture where it may be seen as a weakness to ask others internally for help.

It is not clear in this study whether these 'other relationships' are considered 'central' or 'peripheral' others (Brass, 1995). There is a perception that mentor relationships are strong tie relationships, and perhaps with a strong tie relationship there is less need for peripheral others. This could suggest that the Police mentees and mentors did not need additional others, as their mentoring relationships gave them what they needed, yet the NHS group did as their mentoring relationships were more geared towards the qualification and so for other workplace development, they needed further support. This finding therefore suggests that lack of emphasis on 'other relationships' may be seen as a positive too.

This is an important finding as it suggests that having other supportive relationships are helpful in the workplace. Other relationships were not a strongly discussed factor for all organisations (not considered significant in the Police cases but still mentioned) but where this was mentioned, they were considered mostly facilitative. This finding reminds us not to underestimate the ‘nexus of relationships’ (Hinde, 1981) that support mentoring, as it is an entire network which makes a deference to mentees' and mentors' longer term career outcomes (Higgins & Thomas, 2001). This ‘nexus’ is especially important if it is felt that managers (senior managers and immediate line managers) are not seen as supportive as if so, employees will look for other likeminded, helpful others for workplace developmental support beyond them, in order to survive the workplace. There is a suggestion that those employees with both a supportive manager and an effective mentoring relationship are less likely to seek other strong tie developmental relationships elsewhere (more detail in the next section).

#### ***11.3.3 Managers can be facilitating or hindering in mentoring.***

Many authors (Eddy et al., 2005; Hegstad & Wentling, 2005; Eby et al., 2006; Allen et al., 2006; Parise & Forret, 2008) discuss the important influence of managers within mentoring, with the suggestion being that those with less supportive managers may be less motivated or less willing to participate in mentoring (Parise & Forret, 2008). This study shows that managers were a significant both facilitating and hindering moderating factor for mentees and mentors in all three organisations. Mentees tended to be more positive about managers (NHS and CEPF), especially during the interviews, but within the focus groups (CEPF and NEPF) mentee comments were mostly negative. Mentors tended to be less positive in their comments except for the CEPF interviews where comments made were mostly positive but the focus group discussions again (CEPF and NEPF) were mainly negative. It is interesting to see that the focus group comments tended to be less positive about managers; could this be because mentees and mentors felt more able to share their displeasure when with others colleagues, or that once colleagues had started the conversations, they felt more able to open up about this and elaborate too? Or perhaps focus groups were seen as a more anonymous opportunity for all those involved to share concerns about their

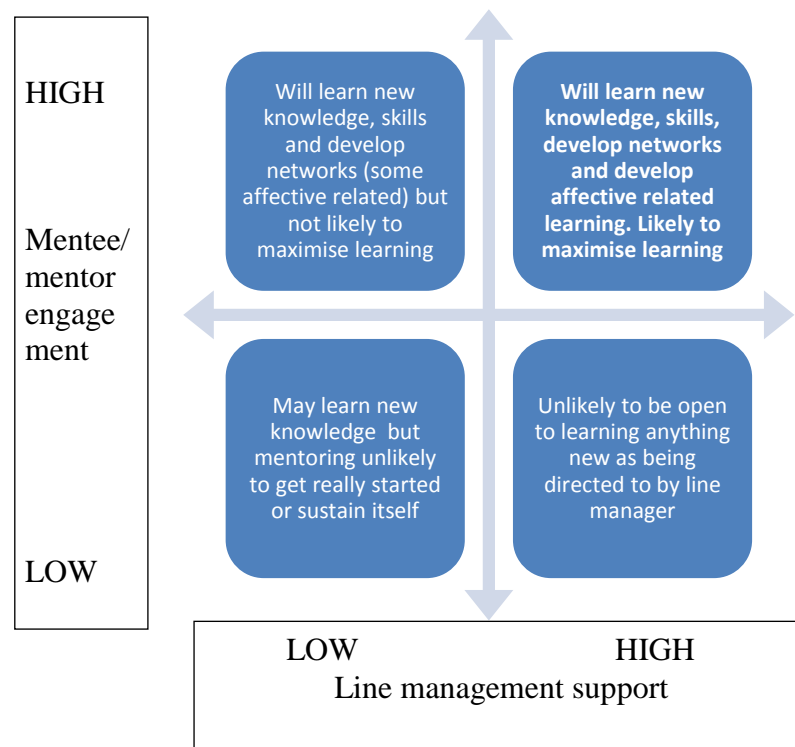
line managers without feeling that it was being directly documented and directly attributed to them only.

In summary, mentees and mentors across all three organisations stated that managers were either supportive, disinterested/indifferent/unaware but not unsupportive, and/or disinterested/not supportive/blocking available mentoring time. Shinn's (1999) police officer study cited the importance of line management support and fairness as key moderating factors, showing that line management inconsistency is not helpful. Jennings (2010) and Jones (2014) suggested that without management engagement, L&D efforts in the workplace would be less effective. Specifically with regard to mentoring, Alred and Garvey (2010) agreed that a condition that relates to a less successful programme is that it is not seen as legitimate work. If line managers hold this perception, then this will cause issues with being released from the workplace for mentoring. Some mentees reported that managers felt left out as they had not been briefed well enough about the programme (Cranwell-Ward et al., 2004; Race, 2006) and perhaps this linked to their misunderstanding about the legitimacy of mentoring. Some managers were also reported by their mentees as feeling guilty that they did not enquire enough or support them more.

This finding is important because they show that despite many critical, hindering comments made about managers, mentees and mentors did still persist with their mentoring relationships, and for some they stated that this was a good reason to persist, in the absence of support from elsewhere. There were also many facilitative comments made about managers, which would help to explain the success of many of the mentoring relationships too.

This matrix (Fig 11.1) helps to simplify this finding further.

**Fig 11.1** - Showing how line management support combines with mentor/mentee engagement to encourage learning



Source: Jones (2014) p. 5.

This figure demonstrates this important finding in relation to managers as it shows that where manager support and mentor support is high, learning is likely to be maximised. However, where management support is low, but mentor support is still high, learning will occur but is not likely to be maximised. Obviously, where management support is low and mentoring engagement is low, outcomes will also be low.

This is an important finding as in connection with this model, it helps to confirm what is already known about the influence that managers have on mentoring: that their influence can be both facilitative and hindering towards learning. In the public sector, where management and leadership styles are criticised and trust between management and workers is low (Pate al al., 2007), this is an important reminder of the influence that managers can have on learning. If the public sector is truly attempting to effect change in leaderships styles and the organisational culture within which they work (Meaklim & Sims, 2011), a starting point could be to ensure managers are much more

engaging, much more open to offering developmental support to their employees and much more willing to act as enablers and not restrictors to such L&D opportunities.

#### ***11.3.4 Time is a hindering factor in mentoring.***

Time is a key factor that affects the process and product of learning (Pratt, 1988.) Time was the most significant moderating factors that both mentees and mentors discussed in all three organisations as hindering their mentoring relationships. It was the second highest category for NHS and the CEPF, and the highest category for NEPF. This was the only clear, significant hindering factor for all parties and all organisations, supported by Hegstad and Wentling (2005) as one of the biggest hindering factors. For NHS mentees, time issues related to busy periods in work (winter flu bugs), workload as covering more than one role, and for mentors, workplace distractions, differing priorities and increased workload. For Police mentees and mentors, the pattern of comments was similar including comments on heavy workload, working patterns, the pressure of family commitments and busy diaries. Some mentees and mentors did mention how they worked around time issues by: managing their own dairies, planning meetings in advance, protecting time in the diary and not always meeting in work time.

Allen (2007) suggested that further investigation was needed into how time constraints, workload pressures and long working hours impacted mentoring and she also felt that the amount of learning may be affected by these time pressures.

This is an important finding as it confirms what we know about time being a common and significant hindering factor and this has been found for both parties, in all three case study organisations. However, this study shows that it has not necessarily had an adverse effect on the mentoring received as mentees and mentors have found ways to manage their mentoring time better, and have continued to gain learning from their mentoring relationships. Without perhaps realising it, mentees and mentors have developed ways to work around the issue of time, so perhaps this has developed their problem solving skills and enhanced their abilities to deal with obstacles to their learning, which may well open up doors for them in the future. This is particularly pertinent to

the CEPF women, who have mentioned learning new ways towards a work-life balance; finding time to fit in mentoring perhaps has shown them how better to manage their time and differing workplace demands, which could be helpful learning towards being better prepared for future struggles at the top.

High workload is something that is mentioned across all three cases and due to extensive restructuring and cuts to public spending, those who have survived in the public sector have found themselves secured into positions with higher workloads than before (Cribb et al., 2014). This is a consequence of the structural changes that have occurred and will not be addressed by senior managers in these organisations in the short term. Therefore, if managers are expected to support mentoring in the workplace then they need to be convinced that the time (as well as the budget) invested will reap the longer term rewards expected. This finding helps to remind L&D practitioners about the importance of ensuring the outcomes expected are achieved and that a commitment of time is made at the start between mentees/mentors and the managers of those mentees/mentors. This also perhaps encourages a more creative approach to mentoring in the public sector whereby time to mentor whilst in work can be managed through different means (discussed later.)

#### ***11.3.5 Similarity and difference are facilitating factors in mentoring.***

Comments were made on how similarity was a significant facilitating factor for both mentees and mentors within the NHS and the CEPF, but not the NEPF (although they were recorded as facilitative for both parties but not significantly). Difference was considered to be significantly facilitative for the NHS and CEPF for both parties but not for the NEPF significantly. These were important findings as this was not an expected moderating factor but was added to the Police interview and focus group questions as many comments were made in the mentee and mentor NHS discussions.

Similarity was mentioned in relation to similarity in upbringing, work background, work experience, job role, values, approach to work, family commitments, home-life experiences and



personalities. Thibodeaux and Lowe (1996) suggested that both parties having similar learning styles would lead to more effective mentoring relationships and Eby et al.'s (2000) and Allen and Eby's (2003) studies showed that mentoring relationships were more likely to be successful if values, beliefs and attitudes between mentees and mentors were similar. Similarity may be linked to the notion of friendship and strong tie relationships, whereby friends are likely to share similar values, concerns and way of thinking (Duck, 1986) and is a function from within Kram's psychosocial function. However, friends can be less challenging, and can restrict social interactions in the workplace (Kram, 1988). Notwithstanding the obvious similarity for the CEPF mentoring programme that mentees and mentors were all starting from the same mutual base as women, their values, attitudes and beliefs may have still differed in the workplace.

However, helpful differences were mentioned in relation to different perspectives, levels of confidence, action-orientedness, style and personality. Theory also suggests that too great a hierarchy or experience gap should be avoided (Clutterbuck, 2015) as some level of connection needs to be made, in order for social learning to establish and occur (Jennings, 2008).

Similarity and difference were discussed by the CEPF mentees and mentors more, as was the 'effective matching strategy'. Interestingly for the CEPF, more mentees felt the matching strategy was facilitative (the benefits of likeminded women providing support to likeminded women) but more mentors felt that this was hindering; perhaps the mentors felt more exposed in a different area of the business or needed to work harder to offer support or were unable to know what support they could offer across these boundaries. Difference also came through as a facilitating factor for the NHS and NEPF but this was less emphasised.

This is an important finding as neither similarity nor difference were a moderating factor from Hezlett and Wentling's (2005) study and so they are both new additions. It is interesting that similarity and difference have been facilitative factors within the mentoring relationship, as at first they seem directly opposed. However, perhaps similarity is an important aspect to find common ground to create the rapport initially and to make the relationship more comfortable, in keeping

with the early section of the support and challenge model (Connor & Pokora, 2012; Daloz, 2012), but difference allows more challenge to be brought into the relationship too, as in the later section of the support and challenge model. This is an important finding in terms of the culture of the organisations involved, as this suggests that challenge is seen as an important aspect in supporting the intensity of learning. The public sector is certainly within challenging times and needs to make some shifts in leadership and organisational culture in order to evolve with these changing times (Hays, 2012), so perhaps this suggests that there is scope within mentoring for managers and employees to be more challenging of each other in order to question the mind sets and practices within the workplace (Lok & Crawford, 2004): the cultural norms in relation to the current leadership styles and the shifting structures for the future. This in turn will allow those involved in mentoring to help shape the changing nature of their work environment.

#### ***11.3.6 HR challenges are a hindering factor within the Police mentoring relationships.***

Police mentees and mentors stated that HR challenges (and personal factors) were significant factors that can hinder the mentoring relationships too (these were not significant for the NHS). As previously mentioned, due to Government pressure and tighter budgets, learning and development opportunities and promotional projects are being restricted within the Police, as employees are being asked to retire early, being redeployed from office roles back into the front line and vice versa. This was mentioned by mentees and mentors and caused concerns for mentees as the purpose of the CEPF programme was to open up development for women, but in these difficult times there was a lack of clarity about what the future may look like and therefore this was a less obvious outcome from their mentoring relationships for mentees, as mentors were less able to suggest and push towards the normal opportunities. This is perhaps not a significant issue within the NHS, as they are used to constant Government interference and change and/or those involved were focused on a qualification-related development opportunity, supported by HR, so HR challenges were not seen to be impacting this.

Young and Perrewe (2000) suggested that mentees' perceptions of their job security and career opportunities will affect whether they positively pursue mentoring or not, with the suggestion

being that they are less likely to pursue mentoring in times of instability and change. Whilst the HR challenges moderating factor included comments on lack of job security and lack of promotional and developmental opportunities, it does not seem to have adversely affected the continuing mentoring relationships. It is hard to say whether the outcomes may have been greater, if these were not a moderating factor, but it has certainly not stopped mentoring being available or being pursued by mentees. Garvey (2014) discusses that in an unstable work environment, mentoring relationships may become more short term and more like friendships as those involved are sharing a common fate. However, these results do not concur with that notion as the huge amount of affective-related learning mentioned does not suggest a short-term focus.

HR challenges also included comments on the organisational culture. This was only mentioned within the two Police studies where issues of the 'us and them' authoritarian culture (Waddington, 2006) between police officer and police staff roles were mentioned, and the differing rank levels (whereby those at higher levels did not fully understand the pressures of those in lower levels relates to lack of understanding of managers mentioned earlier.) Eraut (2007) suggested that managers have a huge influence on the organisational culture and learning in the workplace and as we have already discussed if line managers were seen as hindering in some aspects, this could have affected comments made within the HR challenges section. Waddington (2006) suggests that the Police typically focus on pragmatism and short-termism and Garvey et al (2014) suggested that traditional hierarchies do not lend themselves to a developmental culture, so it is encouraging to see that both Police forces were keen to establish a more creative way to support the longer term development of their employees with mentoring. In this respect, mentoring was organisationally counter-intuitive but still managed to survive within this more directive culture (Garvey et al., 2014) and changing times.

Personal factors were significantly hindering for CEPF mentees and mentors only although both hindering/facilitating for the NEPF mentees. Personal factors included illness, family issues outside of work, misunderstanding about what mentoring can provide, and lack of commitment and enthusiasm from mentees. This perhaps relates to the misunderstanding of the expectations of

promotion and development opportunities (discussed by both Police mentees and mentors) and this would have had an effect on the mentees'/mentors' willingness to engage. This is an important finding because this is not an established moderating category by Hezlett and Wentling (2005) and so is considered a new category which impacts on mentoring.

According to Knowles et al. (2015) adults are motivated to learn when drivers are in place and de-motivators removed. Those mentees and mentors who experienced de-motivation due to HR challenges, job insecurity, lack of development and promotional opportunities and lack of management support, may have demonstrated negative personal factors including lack of motivation, commitment and enthusiasm. The de-motivators would have had an impact on the mentees' openness and ability to learn. There were some positive factors mentioned by mentors, though, in relation to personal factors about mentees' enthusiasm, drive and willingness to work hard and this suggests more learning for those in this situation. Vroom's (1995) expectancy theory and social exchange theory include the notion that adults are more motivated when they can see that the effort will get them an outcome that will be valuable to them. The fact that despite some hindering factors (managers, HR challenges, including organisational culture), mentoring did manage to persist, suggests that the mentees and mentors did see the value of it and benefits for themselves (Baranik et al., 2010) and so worked together to overcome some obvious organisational and cultural barriers.

For the CEPF only, organisational change was mentioned as a significant hindering factor for both mentees and mentors in terms of the impact on job security, restrictions on promotion and learning and development opportunities. The CEPF was going through a large scale change programme at the time, so it makes sense that this was mentioned so many times and affecting the tone and outcome of the mentoring sessions (in fact it was mentioned 137 times when mentee and mentor responses were put together and so gained the highest response overall within the CEPF comments). As the other two organisations were not going through such large scale change at the time, this was unlikely to be an issue for them. Some mentees and mentors did mention they could see the positives in the change and saw mentoring as a way to support them through it and/or open

their eyes to wider opportunities, perhaps due to their increased knowledge of the wider organisational opportunities, through their cognitive learning.

This is an important finding as it helps to show that within the Police, HR challenges, organisational culture and organisational change aspects can be hindering factors for mentoring. Taking into account the ongoing change in purpose and structure of the public sector organisations and how this will have an effect on the cultural norms of the workplace, it is important to recognise how opportunities to maximise the learning can be restricted through the organisational culture and climate. If senior managers, managers and L&D practitioners want to get the most out of mentoring in the workplace, then it is important to create a culture that allows this to happen and/or bringing in mentoring may be a process by which this can start to affect the culture of the workplace through pockets of sub-cultures (Schein, 1996) directly.

#### **11.4 Research question 4 - *How do these moderating factors change over time for both parties?***

##### ***11.4.1 The pattern of some responses over time was similar for mentees and mentors.***

Responses for mentees similarly decreased over time in relation to time and personal factors, in all three cases (Table 10.5). Perhaps in relation to time this is connected to mentees finding ways around the time constraints and finding other ways to meet up, between shifts, at lunchtime and/or through finding other ways to keep in touch, through emails and/or phone-calls instead. This fits with the idea of developing problem solving skills in relation to balancing time (as mentioned earlier) and is another key skill that has been developed through mentoring for mentees. Responses about personal factors have decreased for mentees over time too, perhaps because mentees have found a way to balance their personal issues with mentoring and/or that mentoring is helping them solve some emotional, personal issues, so they have become less prevalent later on and so have less impact on the mentoring. Perhaps this links to social exchange theory (Emerson, 1976) and the nexus of relationship theories (Hinde, 1981; Kram, 1988) too, whereby mentees are using a combination of relationships to help deal with their personal issues.

Responses for mentors similarly decreased over time, in respect of other relationships and similarity, in all three cases. Comments on other relationships may be reducing as mentors are starting to realise that they can mentor without the help of others and so rely less on others for that early support towards their mentoring. In respect of similarity, perhaps as they have needed to challenge their mentee more over time (Connor & Pokora, 2012), less mention is made of the similarities as these are less helpful in times of challenge and/or the differences have become more apparent between them over time. It is difficult to pinpoint the exact reasons for these changes over time but these insights suggest that there is scope for more research into understanding why responses change within the different phases.

Interestingly, no responses in relation to moderating factors increased over time across all three cases. This perhaps links to the increase in learning outcome responses over time, that as the learning begins to increase and intensify over time, less mention is made of the factors that are facilitating or hindering, as mentoring has created its own momentum with or without those factors.

This is an important finding as it suggests that over time, certain moderating factors may reduce in intensity naturally but that there are others, which may need more help or intervention to reduce their impact over time, for instance HR challenges or managers. Also, it is known that time is a moderating factor (Hegstad & Wentling, 2005; Garvey, 2010), but it has not been known until now, for how long this may negatively impact the mentoring relationship. Again, the importance of managers: both senior managers as budget holders and mentors, and line managers as gatekeepers and mentors, in terms of allowing their employees to be involved and how much time they are willing to allow them to commit from their working day to mentoring, can be seen as a key influencing factor to the effectiveness of the relationship. The suggestion is that if managers want to take mentoring seriously, they will need to allow their employees to make a serious commitment to it.

#### *11.4.2 Mentee and mentor responses generally reduced over time within the Police*

*cases.*

Responses about moderating factors reduced or stayed the same over time for mentees within the two Police case study organisations, which was the same for NEPF mentors too but not for four out of the 9 factors for CEPF mentors. This is an important finding as it suggests that generally as the mentoring relationship progressed within the Police environment, there was less attention paid to discussing facilitating and hindering factors, perhaps as mentees and mentors have found ways to get the support they need and/or ways around getting the support that they needed, so that areas which were an issue previously were no longer an issue, for instance managers and personal factors.

For example, comments on similarity and difference reduced over time. This is interesting as it shows perhaps the perceived benefits of being similar or different are perhaps only facilitative in the early phases of mentoring when the relationship and the rapport is being established and once a more comfortable, trusting relationship or friendship has been created, then these factors become less of an issue or noticeable area for discussion, as mentees and mentors move through the support and challenge model mentioned earlier (Connor & Pokora, 2012; Daloz, 2012). As can be seen, feeling comfortable and making friends is an area that gets mentioned over time by both mentees and mentors and is another factor that distinguishes mentoring from other workplace interventions (Garvey et al., 2014). Friendship is a key psychosocial function of mentoring (Kram, 1988) which emerges in the later phases, which enhances an individual's self-worth and identity, and relates directly to an increase in affective-related comments over time. Kram suggested that those mentoring relationships that have greater intimacy and a greater interpersonal bond are more critical to personal development and more unique than other workplace relationships. This is an important finding showing that once similarity and difference is established, it gets mentioned less.

Also, those Police mentees and mentors that discussed managers as being a hindering factor, mentioned this less as the mentoring relationship progressed (except for NEPF mentees who mention this at the same level), perhaps this is because they have grown to accept the lack of

support and/or see their mentor as plugging this gap for them now. However, those mentees that suggest managers are a facilitating factor within the NHS, increased their comments about this over time. Perhaps as mentees started to reflect about the support they had and the benefits they had received, they also reflected on how supportive their manager had been towards their qualification and their mentoring or how much more support they may need from them into the future. This is an interesting finding as although it has been known that managers are a moderating factor, it has not been known until now, for how long this may impact the various phases throughout the mentoring relationship. This finding suggests that managers are important to the beginning of the mentoring relationship but over time, their support or otherwise is not as important to the mentee. This suggests that as time moves on within the relationship, mentees are becoming more flexible, more self-directing and more autonomous with their mentoring relationships, and this could change the way in which they approach their work and how they need to be managed. This potentially gives those involved in mentoring the opportunity to become ‘knowledge workers.’ With this in mind, mentoring may be an opportunity to move away from offering this autonomy to the more privileged workers only towards a wider audience, which could ultimately transform the nature of work itself (Williams, 2014).

#### ***11.4.3 Some responses remained high for mentors (CEPF).***

Generally moderating factors decreased over time within the Police studies but it was noticeable that for the CEPF mentees and mentors their responses remained high in the areas of time (already discussed), HR challenges and organisational changes.

These findings show that where organisational change is happening (CEPF), this is seen as a huge hindering factor for both parties. This relates to heavier workloads, more uncertainty within the workplace, movement of managers, increased workload, lack of awareness of the importance of mentoring and lack of development opportunities available for all. This would have a huge impact on the ability of the mentees and mentors to meet up, to have clarity towards their goals and to attain development opportunities towards them. This is an important finding as Bryant and Johnson (2004) suggested that learning thrives in an atmosphere of uncertainty, chaos and a lack of clear



direction and so perhaps this supports why the CEPF mentoring relationships managed to survive during these difficult changing times.

Where there is relative stability, within the organisation (NHS and NEPF) responses in relation to HR challenges remained low but where there was higher instability (CEPF), the significance of the HR challenges responses increased. Mentees and mentors still seem to pursue mentoring even though it is clearer that they may not get the development and promotional opportunities initially sold to them. This is particularly apparent in the CEPF where the principle aim of mentoring was to support women into higher positions, but when those higher positions are not readily available now due to the change programme, it may become a harder job for mentee and mentor to stay motivated and committed.

It is also interesting to note that those mentees and mentors within the CEPF responded with more comments than the other two organisations, particularly in areas of managers, time and similarity (mentees) and time and organisational change (mentors). As all the mentees and mentors within the CEPF organisation were women, perhaps this created greater comfort and scope for them to share similar circumstances and similar issues as there was a feeling that women mentors were more understanding of the similar hindering and facilitating factors that they were each facing as women, than perhaps in the more mixed pairings in the NHS and NEPF. For instance, this was the only organisation where comments were made about stress and work-life balance; perhaps these are issues that are more particular to women or more likely to be drawn out in discussions with women. If such an important issue to women, this suggests that matching women with women who can act as role models (Barbulescu, 2005) to demonstrate how they have overcome these obstacles, seems to make sense practically (Silvestri, 2003).

Also, the CEPF was the main study and so there were more opportunities for the researcher to develop a relationship with the respondents both through the interviews and focus groups over time. Perhaps this has created a greater response or perhaps this is connected to those that are going through significant change, that there is more to say in relation to these moderating factors?

This is an important finding because Hegstad and Wentling (2005) suggest that organisational change is one of the biggest hindering factors for mentoring. Bearing in mind that all three case study organisations were experiencing a significant amount of change, whether explicit through a large scale change programme (CEPF) or ongoing public sector reform, this did not seem to have a huge impact on the learning coming through for mentees or mentors as generally this increased over time (except for mentees and mentors in the cognitive domain and the social network domain for mentees). This then suggests that mentoring could be a key L&D intervention during times of change.

***11.4.4 There was no similar pattern in relation to positive and negative responses over time or intensity of responses by phase, between the three cases.***

Generally, the NHS had the majority of responses by moderating factor that increased over time and they gave more responses within the cultivation and redefinition phases. The NHS mentee and mentor responses were predominantly positive over time (except time), which was not the same for the other two cases. Perhaps this is because those involved in the NHS mentoring programme were also completing a management qualification and so were feeling positively supported from the outset. Also, perhaps throughout their mentoring and qualification journey, they could see the more tangible benefits of their mentoring impacting on their assessment results, so they made even more positive comments over time and at the end of their formal mentoring relationships.

CEPF mentees showed overall a higher response rate in the initiation (beginning) and redefinition (end) phases but CEPF mentors showed an overall higher response rate in the final two phases of the mentoring cycle (separation and redefinition). CEPF mentee and mentor responses started more positively but in the later phases of the mentoring cycle became predominantly more negative (particularly in the areas of HR challenges and organisational change). It has been discussed earlier that change will have an impact on the ability to meet up, the opportunities available to discuss and future career prospects, and so as the change programme became more deeply embedded in the organisational change, these opportunities would have been even more restricted, so it makes sense

to assume that some of these aspects became more talked about and more negatively discussed by both parties.

Both the NHS and CEPF responses generally showed that a higher number of responses were made similarly in the final phases (redefinition phase.) But for the NEPF this was not the case as their responses were highest in the first two phases of the mentoring cycle but decreased over time for both mentees and mentors. Also, NEPF mentee responses were mostly negative throughout but for mentors slowly became increasingly positive over time. Perhaps as the mentoring progressed, more opportunities were becoming available for the mentees and mentors to focus towards, as there was no change programme impacting on opportunities available for the NEPF mentoring relationships and so no huge impact from HR challenges either. This meant that there was less need to mention negative aspects or hindering factors to their progression, as later on, opportunities were being realised. It is difficult to understand why the mentee responses remained fairly negative throughout (although they did reduce in number) but mentors' responses became slightly more positive over time; perhaps this is in recognition of the mentors becoming more confident with their ability to bypass some of the hindering factors affecting their mentoring over time.

This is an important finding because this research shows that there is not a clear cut pattern between the three cases in terms of volume of responses and positive/negative aspects of all key moderating factors over time, so it would not be possible to predict beyond these cases in terms of a pattern across all moderating factors. However as mentioned previously there are some specific moderating factors that have reduced for each party over time, which is a new insight. This suggests that although the public sector context was common for all three cases, there was no definitive set of findings in relation to moderating factors that are transferable between or beyond the three cases.

***11.4.5 Mentoring seemed to endure and learning occurred despite some significant hindering factors.***

Despite some significant hindering factors, mentoring seemed to endure within the NHS and two Police organisations. As previously mentioned, mentoring comes from a Greek word meaning ‘enduring’ (Garvey, 2014, p. 361) and so these findings show that despite certain contextual setbacks (Zachary, 2012), it can persist and bring learning for both parties. Hezlett (2005) states that mentees learn from both positive and negative experiences and this is what seems to have occurred. For instance, mentees have learnt to bypass their unsupportive managers and mentors have learnt to manage their diaries better. Wanberg et al. (2003) suggested that more proactive mentees are more likely to influence the amount of mentoring provided. Talented mentees therefore are perhaps more determined to make it work, despite setbacks (perhaps that is why they are considered talented) and so this is perhaps what has ensured its success. Perhaps the stronger ties (Higgins & Kram, 2001) are within the relationships that need more effort to work, which explains perhaps why so many friendships have been developed over time. This connects with social exchange theory too (Emerson, 1976) whereby individuals are more likely to be motivated towards and work harder within relationships that are creating benefits for them.

As already discussed, context has a direct influence on whether mentoring exists in the first place (Rogow, 1989) and can influence the type and amount of support offered within mentoring (Ensher & Murphy, 1997). Despite the challenging times within these three case studies, all three had decided to pilot mentoring programmes and approached the researcher after they had senior management commitment to get started. All three had very little L&D and specifically mentoring activity in the workplace (except the NHS who had a formal mentorship programme for their nursing employees) and so perhaps in the absence of any other L&D interventions available, mentoring is more likely to endure. Also, perhaps this connects with the notion that the public sector are looking towards L&D interventions to help affect the changes in their workplaces, and as such these are the contexts that are most likely to ensure it is effective and survives.

This is an important finding because it recognises that real life learning is messy and complex (Siemens, 2005) but if mentees and mentors are willing, mentoring will find a way.

### **11.5 Limitations of the study.**

Several limitations to this study should be recognised. Much information has been gathered from 38 interviews (NHS), 68 interviews and four focus groups (CEPF) and 12 focus groups (NEPF) with the same types of respondent over time. This gives confidence in the results that the information collected represents the perceptions of this particular mentoring population: mentees and mentors. It is hoped that these results will inform wider evidence-based practice but it is recognised that although interesting to compare and contrast the findings between the three different case study organisations, the findings drawn from this study may not be directly applicable to other mentoring programmes beyond these UK Healthcare Trusts or Police forces. As all three mentoring programmes were pilot programmes (although for the NEPF three other cohort groups post the pilot were also considered), there may have been restrictions in the initial management engagement and organisational commitment given, as these were not seen yet as a permanent programme and/or they were more closely managed initially, than perhaps they may have been in more established programmes. In turn, this may have affected some of the facilitating and hindering factors discussed.

Also, assumptions were made in relation to when the mentoring pairs moved through the four phases but this may not have taken into account those mentees or mentors who moved more quickly or more slowly through their mentoring relationships. It may have been helpful to find a more measurable way to establish the mentoring phase that each dyad was in before interviewing them or running the focus groups. Although this may not always be practical when the interviews/focus groups were set up by the sponsoring organisation, as with the CEPF and the NEPF.

Alternative methods could be used for gathering the information, for instance observations (although not always applicable in such confidential, sensitive settings), a review of personal development plans and mentoring diaries to help avoid issues with common method bias and potentially a recognition and reporting delay by respondents (Chao, 1997). It was interesting to find that the focus groups tended to collect mostly negative comments about the organisational context. It would have been helpful to acknowledge this information earlier, in order to share this back with the focus group attendees, in order to try to understand further why this was the case.

Also, information was not collected from those that did not attend the interviews or the focus groups, although some phone-calls were made and emails were sent. Assumptions could be made that these mentees/mentors were having successful mentoring relationships and so did not see the value of attending and/or did not have the time available or that their mentor relationships were not as productive, so did not attend as they felt they had nothing to share or their mentoring had been disbanded. This information would have been helpful to pursue, to have a better understanding of those specific hindering factors which could lead to less effective or termination of relationships.

Although the research questions were geared towards the impact of mentoring on mentees' and mentors' learning, it may have been difficult for both parties to distinguish between the learning and support from mentoring and other relationships within the workplace. For NHS mentees/mentors this involved their tutors, colleagues, managers and for the Police mentees/mentors their mentor trainer, other colleagues, other managers. It is not possible to say that all of the perceived learning gained can be attributed directly to mentoring alone (Kram, 1988) as an individual's learning may also be influenced by a wider learning network at work too (Garvey et al., 2014). We know that relationships matter (Field, 2003) as 'other relationships' were mentioned as enabling factors to learning, in this study. Also, as the managers seem to have such an impact (positive and negative) on the mentoring experiences, perhaps a more triadic relational approach could have been taken to broaden and extend our understanding of the learning theatre of mentoring (Grace & Holloway, 2010).

Also, it may have been difficult for both parties to distinguish between the learning and support from mentoring and other experiences within the workplace. For the NHS group, as their mentoring was specifically linked to the mentees' qualification, it is likely that some of their learning would have been developed through their studies too. Also, for the Police, they would also have been developing through on-going experiences within their job alongside their mentoring. It is very likely that some of the learning discussed and attributed to mentoring, had been developed outside of the mentoring relationship, but perhaps only realised as part of the mentoring discussions. Finally, it is worth reiterating the researcher's own positive bias towards mentoring as this may have had an impact on how the questions were worded and explored, as it is not always possible to extract yourself completely from such an on-going personal study (Bryman & Bell, 2015).

### **11.6 In summary.**

In summary, despite the limitations discussed, the findings of this doctoral research show that both parties perceived they were learning across all four learning domains, within all three formal mentoring programmes. Affective-related learning was an increasingly mentioned area for learning, throughout all phases, by both parties, specifically building increased confidence. Developing a wider knowledge of the organisation (cognitive) was a key learning for both parties, throughout all phases too. Also, both parties learnt a variety of different skills but these fluctuated over time but social networks generally created the least learning in all phases.

Also, mentees and mentors perceived their mentoring was helped and hindered by some similar and dissimilar significant moderating factors, of which four additional moderating factors have been identified through this research: other relationships, personal factors, similarity and difference. Some responses reduced over time in all three cases, for instance time for mentees. Mentees and mentors stated that managers could be both a facilitative and hindering factor. Police mentees and mentors stated that HR challenges were significant factors that could hinder the mentoring relationship too. Overall, Police responses reduced over time too. There was no similar pattern of

responses over the various phases of the mentoring cycle across all three cases, but what was common was that mentoring relationships endured despite some significant hindering factors.

The next chapter (chapter 12) will discuss the key conclusions drawn from this study in terms of what has been confirmed in relation to what is already known and the new insights gained that provide a contribution to new knowledge both theoretically and practically.



## Chapter 12 – Conclusions and Recommendations

This final chapter will discuss the key conclusions drawn from this study in relation to confirming what is already known and highlighting the new insights gained that provide a contribution to new knowledge both theoretically and practically.

### 12.1 Summary of what this study has revealed.

This doctoral research study has met its purpose by investigating learning within formal mentoring relationships: what mentees and mentors learn at different phases of the mentoring life-cycle and factors that moderate the learning process. As much as the discussion in the previous chapter (chapter 11) has covered a number of interesting findings in relation to this, the most significant findings of this study are summarised in Fig 12.1 below.

**Fig 12.1** - A summary of the key findings that this study has revealed in relation to the four specific research questions

#### **In response to Research Questions 1 & 2**

1. Both parties perceived they were learning across all four learning domains
2. Affective-related learning was an increasingly mentioned area for learning, throughout all phases, by both parties, specifically building an increased confidence
3. Developing a wider knowledge of the organisation (cognitive) was a key learning for both parties, throughout all phases too
4. Both parties learnt a variety of different skills but these fluctuated over time
5. Social networks generally created the least amount of learning in all phases

#### **In response to Research Questions 3 & 4**

6. Mentees and mentors perceived their mentoring was helped and hindered by some similar and dissimilar significant moderating factors, including four additional moderating factors
7. Some responses reduced over time in all three cases, for instance time for mentees
8. Mentees and mentors responded that managers could be both a facilitative and hindering factor
9. Police mentees and mentors responded that HR challenges were significant hindering factors
10. Mentoring relationships endured despite some significant hindering factors

These findings make a theoretical and practical contribution by confirming what is already known about formal mentoring and demonstrates some new knowledge that has been created too.

#### ***12.1.1 Confirmation of what is already known.***

It is known that mentoring creates positive benefits for mentees (Megginson et al., 2006; Thurston et al., 2012; Wang et al., 2014) and this study has confirmed that mentees do perceive that they gain learning from formal mentoring relationships. It is also known that mentees gain ‘proximal outcomes’ in respect of learning within the four learning domains, proposed by Wanberg et al.’s conceptual (dynamic) process model (2003) and this research has supported this too. It is also clear from the information shared by mentees that they perceive they have learnt and made changes which have made a difference to themselves and their workplace (Garvey, 2014), and so confirms the positive benefits for mentees through mentoring.

Additionally this study confirms that there are a number of moderating factors that both facilitate and hinder the formal mentoring relationship. It is known that factors such as workload and time (Allen, 2007; Stok-Koch et al., 2007), managers (Eraut, 2004; Hegstad & Wentling, 2005; Eby et al., 2006; Allen et al., 2006; Parise & Forret, 2008), HR challenges (including organisational culture) and organisational changes (Hegstad & Wentling, 2005) can have an effect on the outcomes of mentoring programmes. Hence, the study has not only supported the findings of these researchers, but has created additional insights into what other factors may also facilitate and/or hinder the mentoring relationships.

In short, this study has confirmed that mentees learn within mentoring, and within all four learning domains. It has also confirmed that there are common factors that facilitate or hinder their mentoring relationships.

### ***12.1.2 Synthesis of new insights and theoretical contribution.***

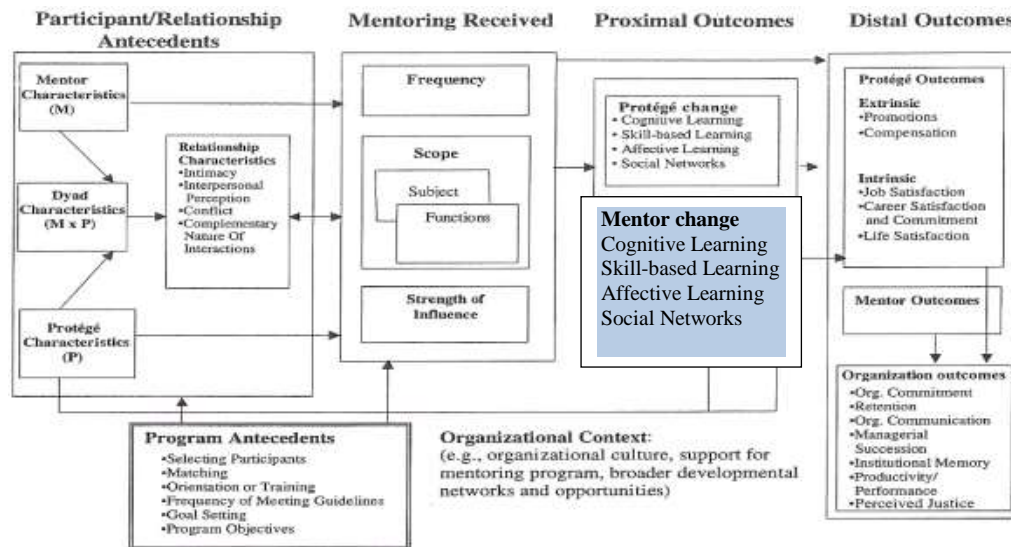
Theoretically, these findings have addressed calls to research both sides of the mentoring dyad together (Philip & Hendry, 2000; Garvey, 2014), to further investigate learning within mentoring (Chun et al., 2012), and also to explore the moderating factors (Ensher & Murphy, 1997; Garvey, 2010).

This study confirms that mentors can achieve the same ‘proximal outcomes’ as mentees, in respect of the same four learning domains; cognitive, skill-based, affective-related and social networks (Wanberg et al., 2003). This helps to emphasise that mentors can gain a huge amount of similar learning to their mentees and that mentoring is a ‘two-way street’ (McCullum, 2010, p. 19).

Benefits for both parties have not previously been routinely recognised within mentoring (Hezlett & Gibson, 2005) yet this study has now highlighted the positive consequences in relation to learning for both parties. Therefore based on these findings an amended version of Wanberg et al.’s (2003) Conceptual (Dynamic) Process Model of Formal Mentoring (initially shown in Fig 1.1) is proposed in Fig 12.2.

This amended model now clearly shows that mentees and mentors (added in the blue) achieve learning within the same domains.

**Fig 12.2** - An amended version of Wanberg et al.'s (2003) model with mentor 'proximal' outcomes added



Adapted from Wanberg et al. (2003) p. 92.

This study also shows which learning domains were most and least discussed. Interestingly, social networks have been confirmed within this study as making the least contribution to both mentees' and mentors' learning, suggesting this is not a significant area of learning.

However, the results have put a focus on the importance of affective-related learning and how it increases in volume of responses from both mentees and mentors over time. This has not been highlighted in detail before. The suggestion made is that as the mentoring relationship becomes more comfortable for both parties over time, the mentor starts to reduce some of the support offered and increases the challenge to mentees. These findings could suggest that this change in emphasis from mentors helps to accelerate the affective-related learning and so confidence, among other related aspects, for example motivation, commitment and positivity for both parties begins to grow. This also connects with the notion of the neo-cortex and emotional brain, and transformational learning theory mentioned earlier, whereby it takes time for the emotional brain to become open to learning, to critically reflect and to transform/create new learning (Dochy et al., 2011). Therefore, this could be directly connected to the trust and friendship developed within the

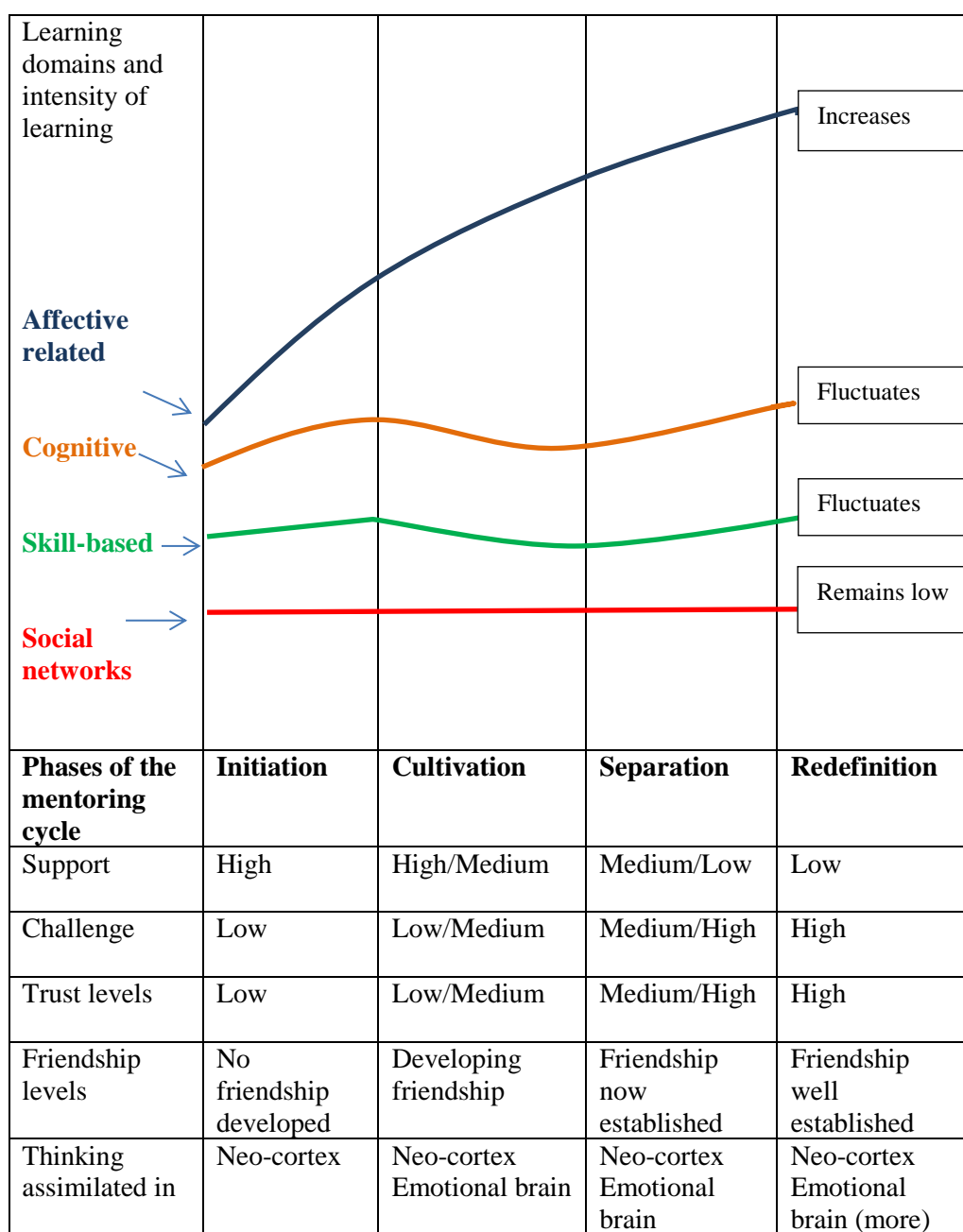
early phases of the mentoring relationship, which leads to greater learning intensity in the latter phases of the mentoring cycle (Zachary, 2012).

Confidence in relation to learning within formal mentoring has been little researched before too, yet this study suggests that mentees and mentors who discussed their increased confidence in their own abilities, also discussed the effect this has on their ability/competence to do their job, which in turn would increase their effectiveness in the workplace. This connects with calls to further evaluate mentoring back into the job and into the organisation (Kirkpatrick & Kirkpatrick, 2009; Kearns, 2005). Improved and shared cognitive and skill-based learning will also have had a positive impact on their understanding, motivation and commitment to their current and future job roles.

Based on the proposed connections between support and challenge offered by the mentors, trust and friendship and how this contributes to an increase in affective-related learning over time, a new model has been created to simplify the links below. Please see Fig 12.3. This has been positioned against the four phases of the mentoring cycle (Kram, 1988) and the intensity of learning aspect has been taken from Clutterbuck and Lane's (2004) model of learning intensity.

Fig 12.3 helps to document the parallel journey that mentees and mentors take together (Zachary, 2012) through the mentoring cycle. This model shows that whilst the mentoring relationship is in its early phases, support is high (for the mentees from the mentors and for the mentors from the formal programme Co-ordinator/training support/supervision sessions). Yet challenge, trust, and friendship levels are low. Learning is achieved more quickly within the cognitive and skill-based arenas through the neo-cortex brain but over time, through the development of the deeper relationship, as trust levels, challenge and friendship levels increase, the emotional brain is able to develop thinking further. The suggestion is that this is a model that is applicable to both mentees and mentors.

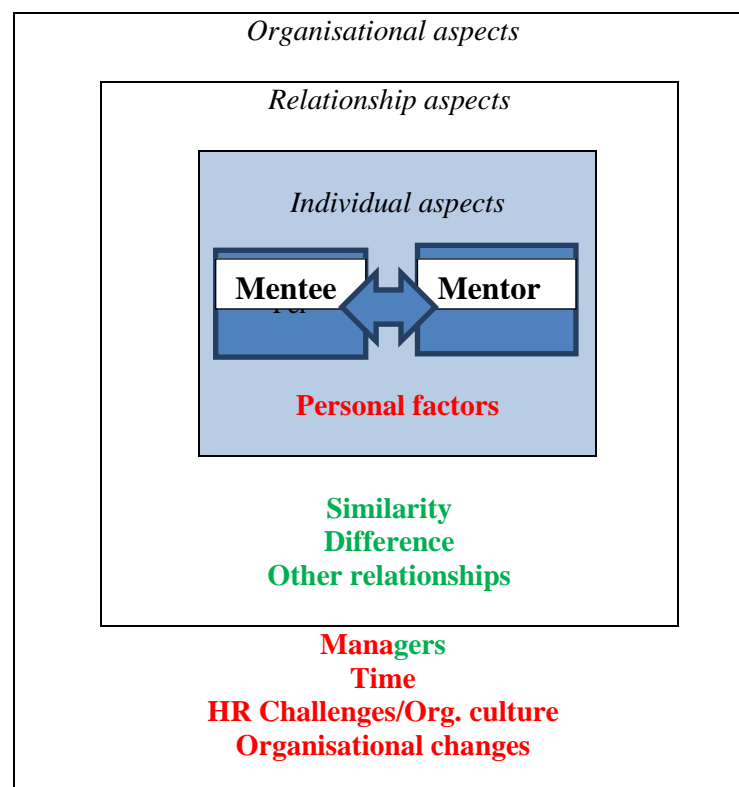
**Fig 12.3** - A model showing the key factors that may contribute to increased affective-related learning over time, for both mentees and mentors



Overall, the new insights from addressing the first two research questions within this study are that mentors learn within the same four learning domains as mentees, and that affective related learning (including confidence) is generally the most discussed domain by both parties, which increases over time. This study therefore confirms the deeper, longer term learning that can be expected to be gained by both parties within formal mentoring; the ‘slow-burn’ of mentoring. The suggestion is that these would not necessarily be gained from shorter term L&D interventions, for instance on-the-job coaching and training.

This study also confirms that there are four additional significant moderating factors that can facilitate and hinder mentoring relationships for both mentees and mentors. In doing so, it has helped to uncover some of the ‘black box’ gaps in terms of what factors contribute (or not) to formal mentoring (Wanberg et al., 2006). Three of these new moderating factors were considered by both mentees and mentors to be facilitative: other relationships, similarity and differences, but personal factors were considered to be generally hindering. Although discussed in previous studies separately, for instance, the importance of other relationships (Zachary, 2000), they have been brought together in one place here. These new four, together with an additional four taken from Hegstad and Wentling’s (2005) research, which were found to be most significant in this study, have been pulled together into a re-model of Kram’s (1988) open systems model of mentoring, in Fig 12.4.

**Fig 12.4** - A model showing the significant moderating factors that impact on the mentoring relationship for both mentees and mentors



Adapted from Kram (1988) p. 19.

This model shows the most significant facilitative factors in green and the most significant hindering factors in red. It is similar to Kram's model as it shows the individual, the relationship and organisational domains but there are different factors listed for this model.

This model potentially suggests an order or priority to how these different moderating factors have an impact on mentoring relationships or could be addressed. It could be suggested that before setting up a mentoring relationship, individual factors (personal factors) need to be considered or they may cause the mentoring relationship not to start as effectively. Then, perhaps attention needs to be paid to the relationship aspects/facilitating factors to ensure the most effective relationship is established. The hope is that if these relationship aspects are supported well enough, then learning will occur despite some of the other organisational aspects/hindering factors in red, which will affect the relationship once it starts. Managers have been put both in half red and half green as they can be seen as both facilitative when supporting but hindering when not.

Organisational culture has been added with HR challenges for this study, but could be added separately into the organisational aspects once more research has been gathered at a later date.

Finally, this study has gained new insights into how the significance of the moderating factors have changed over time. For instance, it was known that managers actively support and/or block participation in mentoring programmes (Eraut, 2004; Hegstad & Wentling, 2005; Eby et al., 2006; Allen et al., 2006; Parise & Forret, 2008) but it was not known how their significance or perception (either positively or negatively) may be different depending on the organisation that was studied. Also, only a small number of the key moderating factors followed the same pattern of responses over time; time for mentees, and other relationships and similarity for mentors. All three showed a decreasing number of responses over time. This could be connected to the affective-related learning domain whereby as the mentoring relationship develops, mentees and mentors are becoming more able or more confident to challenge the time constraints or find ways around them.



It is important to note too, that where change was apparent, this together with HR challenges had a mostly hindering effect on the mentoring relationships, particularly with the CEPF case study organisation. However, from a social exchange theory perspective, these relationships had been effective and have endured despite this and other moderating factor pressures. This suggests that perception of the benefits to both mentee and mentor outweighed the costs in effort and time to meet up (Baranik et al., 2010).

Another concern from the academic literature was the focus on positivist approaches and lack of longitudinal research on mentoring (Jones, 2013; Garvey et al., 2014). This study has addressed these aspects.

The findings from this doctoral study have both supported and challenged the existing literature on formal mentoring and it is hoped has led to a better understanding of mentees' and mentors' learning within the workplace.

## **12.2 Directions for future research.**

Although it seems clear that in these three case study organisations, mentoring has been a benefit to those who contributed to this study, these results offer intriguing paths for future research in relation to what is learnt within mentoring and how this changes over time. For instance, further questions are raised about whether other L&D interventions can deliver the affective-related, emotional, transformative type learning that mentoring can, why skills and social networks seem to be the least commented on domains and how trust and confidence are connected to similarity and difference.

Also, in relation to the key factors that moderate the mentoring relationships and how these change over time, more could be investigated in terms of the importance of managers as the early gatekeepers to mentoring effectiveness, how best to manage time and commitment for those involved and the impact of organisational change on the effectiveness of mentoring. Also, the

extent to which organisational type, organisational culture and the current organisational climate can impact the intensity of learning.

Also, recognising that the findings drawn from this study may not be directly applicable to other mentoring programmes beyond these UK Healthcare Trusts or Police forces and that all three mentoring programmes were pilot schemes, it would be interesting to compare these findings with a more established mentoring programme and/or carry out research into formal mentoring in other areas of these organisations. For instance mentorship with clinical nurses (in the NHS) or those supported on the HPDS (High Potential Development Scheme) within the Police, as this would give another valuable perspective into the impact of mentoring within a different environment, but a similar cultural context. Or indeed recognising that the CEPF mentoring programme was women only, to compare this to another women's only mentoring programme or men only programme may be interesting too.

Alternative methods could be used for gathering the information, for instance observations, a review of personal development plans and mentoring diaries; future research could ensure these methods are employed. It would also have been helpful to pursue negative mentoring experiences further to have a better understanding of those specific hindering factors which could lead to less effective or termination of relationships.

Finally, recognising that managers seem to have such a significant impact (positive and negative) on the mentoring experiences, perhaps a more triadic relational approach could have been taken to broaden and extend our understanding of the learning theatre of mentoring (Grace & Holloway, 2010) and the impact of the organisational culture on their behaviour. In future studies, it would also be interesting to research some of the significant 'other relationships' in more detail to consider how strong or weak those connections may have been and what impact they could have had directly on the mentoring relationships.

### **12.3 Implications for the workplace.**

Having an improved understanding of what exactly mentees and mentors may expect to learn helps to demonstrate the important contribution that mentoring can have in the workplace (Allen et al., 2006). The CIPD surveys confirm year on year, that mentoring is increasing in popularity, but now we can share reasons why this may be so. This study shows that mentoring can have an impact across all four learning domains for all those involved, which helps make clear the benefits of mentoring. In times of significant pressure and change within the public sector (Meaklim & Sims, 2011; Cribb et al., 2014) and increased accountability for ever tightening budgets, finding a learning and development solution that delivers a variety of learning benefits for both parties involved may help to ensure a greater return on the investment for the senior management budget holders.

It is reported that training investments often fail to deliver the planned outcomes, with only about 10% of learning actually being transferred back into the workplace, so the transfer of learning is a critical outcome for HRD (Holton et al., 2000). These findings help to reassure HRD practitioners that learning within mentoring can increase intensity and application back into the workplace over time and highlights the need for senior managers to think carefully about what learning outcomes they want to achieve for the individual and the organisation in the longer term, before committing the L&D budget. However, as discussed mentoring is not necessarily the answer to all L&D challenges, as a blended approach (Jennings, 2008) may be a better approach depending on outcomes expected. If a short term acquisition of skills is needed, the suggestion is that mentoring is not the intervention to most easily achieve this (perhaps a short on-the-job coaching or training session would better meet this need). If a combination of learning domains needs to be achieved and/or more trusting relationships need to be developed, and there is time and budget to develop the 'slow burn' of mentoring, then formal mentoring may well be the better choice. This is helpful information for those thinking of sponsoring or participating in a mentoring programme too, so that they have a better idea of what can be expected, over time.

The knowledge exchange between mentor (often a manager) and employee (mentee) could be key to breaking down some of the barriers within the employment relationship, as this may help to lead towards better communication and involvement with each other and so help to break down some of the rigid boundaries between managers and departments, and in turn transform the social structures of the workplace (Wenger, 1999). In time, this may help to shape a more flexible, more equal workplace. Also, the increase in confidence levels developed over time through mentoring reminds senior managers and leaders, that if they wish to develop the inner strength of their human capital, then mentoring could be an appropriate tool to do this, especially as there seems to be a direct link between self-confidence and improved ability/motivation to do the job well. This is especially pertinent to women in the workplace and again, could see mentoring helping to support the progression of more women (and minority groups) with the unequal public sector workplace.

It has been known that certain internal and external aspects influence the longevity and success of mentoring programmes (Zachary, 2012) and this research shows that mentees and mentors can be affected by some similar moderating factors. L&D practitioners now have a better understanding of the areas to potentially give more support; concentrating on capitalising on the facilitative factors (considering similarity and difference when matching), and minimising the hindering aspects (ensuring all managers are on board and supportive, considering making clear the time implications) should enable both parties to have a more effective relationship.

In particular, these findings reiterate the importance of having managers as enabling gatekeepers to L&D interventions. In the public sector, where management and leadership styles are criticised and trust between management and workers is low (Pate al al., 2007), this is an important reminder of the influence that managers can have on learning. Therefore, getting the right managers more involved in mentoring could help slowly to create a shift towards encouraging the right potential managers in the workplace. This in turn may help to affect the leadership culture in the workplace (Meaklim & Sims, 2011). High workload is a consequence of the structural changes within the public sector and is showing no signs of changing, so perhaps this is an opportunity to take a more creative approach towards reducing the time spent mentoring through Skype (saving travelling

time), through group mentoring sessions (saves mentors time) and through e-mentoring (saves assigning a block of time for both parties.)

As well as verifying certain already understood moderating factors (managers, time), this research has also created some new factors for consideration. This new information could help to give insights into how best to design, deliver and evaluate mentoring in terms of getting the right managers involved early, ensuring that time and support is given to those involved, ensuring that matching takes into account personal factors together with other relationships, similarity and difference, that HR challenges and organisational culture are considered and managed and that regular evaluation sessions are set up to discuss helping and hindering factors, so that enhancements can be made.

These findings suggest that it is extremely important to consider the open systems perspective of mentoring (Kram, 1988) whereby mentoring relationships are embedded in a larger organisational context, which in turn influences the mentoring that is provided and supported. Notwithstanding the complexity and changing nature of public sector organisations today, how people feel, think and act in the workplace (the cultural norms) will have an impact on ‘if’ and ‘how’ mentoring is designed and delivered, and how the results of mentoring are acknowledged and used. Therefore, it is important to consider the power relationships in the organisation (Maddock, 1999) and how the organisational culture can encourage or restrict mentoring activity. The overarching organisational cultures both within the NHS (task/networked culture) and the Police (person/role culture) rely on a highly structured and rigid hierarchy (Bate, 2000; Silvestri, 2003), however there are sub-cultures (Schein, 1996) whereby differing groups may experience the workplace culture differently. For instance, workers and managers may have different workplace experiences and some may be more open and more flexible towards some learning and development opportunities than others. Mentoring could be used to target these particular groups or sub-groups in order to demonstrate the benefits of mentoring for the individuals and the workplace.

In short, it is important to recognise how opportunities to maximise the learning can be embraced or restricted through the organisational culture and climate. If senior managers, managers and L&D practitioners want to get the most out of mentoring in the workplace, then it is important to look for the supporting sub-cultures and/or create a culture that allows this to happen. This would then help to ensure a greater return on investment for formal mentoring in the workplace (Kirkpatrick & Kirkpatrick, 2009).

Finally, this study also shows that having a mentoring programme in times of large scale change may initially be seen as limiting the effectiveness (Stok-Koch et al., 2007), as promotional and developmental opportunities may be reduced. However, this study shows that the additional psychological and developmental support offered by mentoring could be crucial in terms of mentors/mentees navigating their way through these uncertain, changing times within the public sector.

#### **12.4 Concluding comments.**

In summary, this research has recognised that formal mentoring has been under researched and that there were concerns about over estimating its importance and contribution to individuals and the workplace (Wanberg et al., 2003). It is hoped that these findings will provide valuable insights towards a better understanding of formal mentoring as a development tool in the workplace, and act as a platform for future studies into this increasingly popular phenomenon. Perhaps it is the unsung hero, after all?

*'Mentoring perhaps is an 'unsung hero' in the field of development. Its potential is huge, and with careful planning and a lot of support, can be impressively effective. Innovative mentoring programmes, properly resourced and supported, should be on every HR and Organizational Development team's agenda' (Western, 2012, p. 53).*

The final section will list the references used and the Appendices referred to.

## REFERENCES

- Abbasi, K. (2011). The iceberg theory of NHS culture. *Journal of the Royal Society of Medicine*, 104(2), 47. Retrieved from <http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pmc/articles/PMC3031641/>
- Ackroyd, S., & Karlsson, J. C. (2014). In P. Edwards., J. O'Mahoney., & S. Vincent, S. (Eds.), *Studying Organizations Using Critical Realism – A Practical Guide* (pp. 21-45). Oxford: OUP.
- Aldred, G., & Garvey, R. (2010). *The Mentoring Pocketbook* (3<sup>rd</sup> ed.). London: Management Pocketbooks.
- Allen, T. D. (2007). Mentoring Relationships from the Perspective of the Mentor. In B. R. Ragins, & K. E. Kram (Eds.), *The Handbook of Mentoring at Work – Theory, Research and Practice* (pp.123-147). London: Sage.
- Allen, T. D., Eby, L. T., & Lentz, E. (2006). Mentorship behaviors and mentorship quality associated with formal mentoring programs: Closing the gap between research and practice. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 91, 567–578.
- Allen, T. D., Eby, L. T., O'Brien., K. E., & Lentz, E. (2008). The state of mentoring research: A qualitative review of current research methods and future research implications. *Journal of Vocational Behavior*, 73, 343-357.
- Allen, T. D., Eby, L. T., Poteet, M. L., Lentz, E., & Lima, L. (2004). Career benefits associated with mentoring for proteges: A meta analysis. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 89, 1, 127-136.
- Aremu, A. O., & Adeyoju, C. A. (2003). Job commitment, job satisfaction and gender as predictors of mentoring in the Nigeria Police. *Policing: An International Journal of Police Strategies & Management*, 26(3), 377-385.
- Arter, M. (2006). Police mentoring – moving toward police legitimacy. *Criminal Justice Studies*, 19(1), 85-97.
- Arthur, M. B. (1985). Book Review: Mentoring at Work (Kram, K. E). *Administrative Science Quarterly*, 30(3), 454-456.
- Association for Coaching and EMCC Global Code of Ethics for Coaches and Mentors. (2016). *European Mentoring and Coaching Council website*. Retrieved from <http://www.emccouncil.org>.
- Association of Business Schools Ethics Guide. (2010). *Association of Business Schools* Retrieved from <http://www.associationofbusinessschools.org/content/abs-launches-ethics-guide>
- Atkinson, J. (1984). Manpower strategies for flexible organizations. *Personnel Management*, 16(8), 20-24.
- Bach, S. (2005). *Managing Human Resources*. (4<sup>th</sup> ed.). Oxford: Blackwell Publishing.
- Bachkirova, T., Cox, E., & Clutterbuck, D. (2014). Introduction. In E. Cox., T. Bachkirova, & D. Clutterbuck (Eds.), *The Complete Handbook of Coaching* (2<sup>nd</sup> ed.). London: Sage.

- Baker, M. J. (2002). Research Methods. *The Marketing Review*, 3, 167-193.
- Bandura, A. (1976). Modeling theory. In W.S. Sahakian (Ed.), *Learning: systems, models, and theories* (2<sup>nd</sup> ed.) (pp.391-409). Skokie, IL: Rand McNally.
- Bandura, A. (1986). *Social foundations of thought and action – a social cognitive theory*. Englewood Cliffs, NY: Prentice Hall.
- Baranik, L. E., Roling, E. A., & Eby, L. T. (2010). Why does mentoring work? The role of perceived organizational support. *Journal of Vocational Behavior*, 76, 366-373.
- Barbulescu, R. (2005). Playing by the Rules: A Social Network Perspective on Preparing for Radical Career Change. *Academy of Management Proceedings*, D1-D6.
- Baron, A., & Armstrong, M. (2007). *Human Capital Management*. London: Kogan Page.
- Barrett, D. (2014). *Police budgets slashed by £300m despite top officers' warnings*. The Telegraph. Retrieved from <http://www.telegraph.co.uk/news/uknews/law-and-order/11299163/Police-budgets-slashed-by-300m-despite-top-officers-warnings.html>
- Bate, P. (2000). Changing the Culture of a Hospital: From Hierarchy to Networked Community. *Public Administration*. 78, 485–512.
- Baugh, S. G., & Fagenson-Eland, E. A. (2007). Formal mentoring programs. In B. R. Ragins & K. Kram (Eds.), *The handbook of mentoring at work: theory, research and practice*. (pp. 249-271). London: Sage.
- BBC News. (2013). *Female surgeon numbers slower to rise*. Retrieved from <http://www.bbc.co.uk/news/uk-england-devon-23327900>
- BBC News. (2015). *Spending Review: George Osborne protects police funding*. Retrieved from <http://www.bbc.co.uk/news/uk-34922126>
- Beck, U. (2000). *The Brave New World of Work*. Cambridge: Policy Press.
- Bergsteiner, H., & Avery, G. C. (2014). The Twin-cycle experiential learning model: reconceptualising Kolb's theory. *Studies in Continuing Education*, 36(3), 257-274. Retrieved from <http://www.tandfonline.com/doi/pdf/10.1080/0158037X.2014.904782>
- Big Brothers Big Sisters (USA). (2008). Retrieved from <http://www.bbbsa.org>
- Bloom, B.S., Engelhart, M. D., Furst, E. J., Hill, W. H., & Krathwolk, D. R. (1956). *Taxonomy of educational objectives: The classification of educational goals*. Handbook I: Cognitive domain. New York: David McKay Company.
- Bosworth, D., Wilson, D., & Assefa, A. (1993). The Market for Training - A Human Capital Approach. *International Journal of Manpower*, 14(2), 33 – 46.
- Boud, D., Cohen, R., & Walker, D. (1997). *Using experience for Learning*. SRHE & Open University Press: Buckingham.



- Boud, D., & Garrick, J. (1999). *Understanding Learning at Work*. London: Routledge.
- Boud, D., Keogh, R., & Walker, D. (1985). *Reflection: Turning Experience into Learning*. London: Routledge Falmer.
- Bouquillon, E. A., Sosik, J. J., & Lee, D. (2005). It's only a phase: examining trust, identification and mentoring functions received across the mentoring phases. *Mentoring & Tutoring*, 13(2), 239-25.
- Bower, M. (1966). *The Will to Manage: Corporate Success Through Programmed Management*. London: McGraw-Hill.
- Bozionelos, N., Bozionelos, G., Polychroniou, P., & Kostopoulos, K. (2014). Mentoring receipt and personality: Evidence for non-linear relationships. *Journal of Business Research*, 67, 171–181.
- Braithwaite, J. (2010). A lasting legacy from Tony Blair? NHS culture change. *Journal of the Royal Society of Medicine*, 104, 87-89.
- Brass, D. J. (1995). A social network perspective on human resources management. *Research in Personnel and Human Resources Management*, 13, 39-79.
- Brass, D. J. (2001). Social capital and organizational leadership. In S. J. Zaccaro & R. J. Klimoski (Eds.), *The nature of organizational leadership* (pp.132-152). San Francisco: Jossey-Bass.
- Bratton, J., Helms Mills, J., Pynch, T., & Sawchuk, P. (2008). *Workplace Learning – A Critical Introduction*. Canada: Garamond Press.
- Bright, M. (2005). Can Japanese mentoring enhance understanding of Western mentoring? *Employee Relations*, 27(4), 325-339.
- British Educational Research Association. (2004). *Revised Ethical Guidelines for Educational Research*. Retrieved from <http://www.bera.ac.uk/system/files/ethica1.pdf>.
- British Psychological Society. *Code of Ethics and Conduct*. (2006). Retrieved from [http://www.bps.org.uk/sites/default/files/documents/code\\_of\\_human\\_research\\_ethics.pdf](http://www.bps.org.uk/sites/default/files/documents/code_of_human_research_ethics.pdf).
- British Sociological Association. (2002). *Statement of Ethical Practice*. Retrieved from <http://www.britisoc.co.uk/about/equality/statement-of-ethical-practice.aspx>.
- Broad, M.L. (1997). Overview of transfer of training: from learning to performance. *Performance improvement quarterly*. 10(2), 7-21.
- Brooks, V, & Sikes, P. (1997). *The Good Mentor Guide*. Buckingham: Open University Press.
- Bryman, A., & Bell, E. (2015). *Business research methods* (4th ed.). Oxford: Oxford University Press.
- Buck, M. A. (2004). Mentoring: A promising strategy for creating and sustaining a learning organization. *Adult Learning*. 75(3-4), 8-11.

- Carson, D. (2009). Mentoring for Women in Policing in the UK. *International Journal of Evidence Based Coaching and Mentoring*, Special Issue (3), 51-63.
- Casey, C. (1999). The changing contexts of work. In D. Boud & J. Garrick (Eds.), *Understanding Learning at Work* (pp.15-28). London: Routledge.
- Chao, G. T. (1997). Mentoring Phases and Outcomes. *Journal of Vocational Behavior*, 51, 15-28.
- Chan, J. (2006). Changing police culture. In T. Newburn (Ed.), *Policing – Key Readings* (pp.338-363). Devon: Willan Publishing.
- Chandler, D. E., & Ellis, R. (2011). Diversity and Mentoring in the Workplace: A Conversation with Belle Rose Ragins. *Mentoring & Tutoring: Partnership in Learning*, 19(4), 483-500.
- Chaney, M. A. (2015). Guidance from a Mentor Helps Avoid the Pitfalls of Many New Police Chiefs. *The Police Chief*. Retrieved from [http://www.policechiefmagazine.org/magazine/index.cfm?fuseaction=display\\_arch&article\\_id=1371&issue\\_id=12008](http://www.policechiefmagazine.org/magazine/index.cfm?fuseaction=display_arch&article_id=1371&issue_id=12008)
- Chomsky, N. (2012). *Occupy*. London: Penguin
- Chun, J. U., Sosik, J. J., & Yun, N. Y. (2012). A longitudinal study of mentor and protégé outcomes in formal mentoring relationships. *Journal of Organizational Behavior*, 33(8), 1071-1094.
- Chynoweth, C. (2015). *The public sector faces terrifying challenges*. Retrieved from <http://www.cipd.co.uk/pm/peoplemanagement/b/weblog/archive/2015/09/23/the-public-sector-faces-terrifying-challenges.aspx>
- CIPD Factsheet. (2015). *Human Capital*. Retrieved from <http://www.cipd.co.uk/hr-resources/factsheets/human-capital.aspx>
- CIPD. (2015). *L&D Surveys 2005-2015*. Retrieved from <http://www.cipd.co.uk/surveys>
- Clinks and the Revolving Doors Agency (2015) Service user involvement – A volunteering and mentoring guide. Retrieved from <http://www.clinks.org/sites/default/files/VOLUNTEERING%20GUIDE%20-%20Service%20User%20Involvement.pdf>
- Clutterbuck, D. (1998) *Learning Alliances - Tapping into Talent*. London: CIPD.
- Clutterbuck, D. (2015). *Everyone needs a Mentor* (5th ed.). London: CIPD.
- Clutterbuck, D. (2007). An International Perspective on Mentoring. In B. R. Ragins & K. E. Kram (Eds.), *The Handbook of Mentoring at Work - Theory, Research and Practice* (pp.633-655). London: Sage.
- Clutterbuck, D (2012) 12 habits of a Toxic Mentor *David Clutterbuck Partnerships* Retrieved from <https://www.davidclutterbuckpartnership.com/wp-content/uploads/12-habits-of-a-Toxic-Mentor.pdf>

- Clutterbuck, D., & Lane, D. (2004). The Mentoring Life-Cycle - Best Practice. NUI Galway. Retrieved from [http://www.nuigalway.ie/staffdevelopment/documents/the\\_mentoring\\_life\\_cycle\\_v2.pdf](http://www.nuigalway.ie/staffdevelopment/documents/the_mentoring_life_cycle_v2.pdf)
- Clutterbuck, D., & Megginson, D. (2004). *Mentoring Executives and Directors*. London: Elsevier.
- Clutterbuck, D., & Schneider, S. (1988). Executive Mentoring. *Croners Executive Companion Bulletin*, 29.
- Cohen, L., Manion, L., & Morrison, K. (2011). *Research methods in education* (7th ed.). London: Routledge.
- Cohen, N.H. (1995). *Mentoring Adult Learners - A Guide for Educators and Trainers*. USA: Kreiger.
- Cohen, N. Dr. (1999). *Effective Mentoring*. Amherst, USA: HRD Press.
- Colley, H. (2003). *Mentoring for Social Inclusion*. London: Routledge Falmer.
- Colley, H. (2005). A 'Rough Guide' to the History of Mentoring from a Marxist Feminist Perspective. *Journal of Education for Teaching*, 28(3), 257-273.
- Collings, D. G., & Mellahi, K. (2009). Strategic Talent Management: A review and research agenda. *Human Resource Management Review*, 19(4), 304–313.
- Collins, G. C., & Scott, P. (1979). Everyone who makes it has a mentor. *Harvard Business Review*, 56, 89-101.
- Connor, M., & Pokora, J. (2012). *Coaching and mentoring at work* (2<sup>nd</sup> ed.). Berkshire: OUP/McGrawHill.
- Cooper, C. (2014). The NHS timebomb: What is wrong with the NHS? The diagnosis. *The Independent* Retrieved from <http://www.independent.co.uk/life-style/health-and-families/health-news/the-nhs-timebomb-what-s-wrong-with-the-nhs-the-diagnosis-9775930.html>
- Cox, E. (2005). For better, for worse: the matching process in formal mentoring schemes. *Mentoring & Tutoring: Partnership in Learning*, 13(3), 403-414.
- Cox, E. (2012). Individual and Organizational Trust in a Reciprocal Peer Coaching Context. *Mentoring & Tutoring: Partnership in Learning*, 20(3), 427-443.
- Cox, E. (2013). *Coaching Understood – A pragmatic inquiry into the coaching process*. London: Sage.
- Cranwell-Ward, J., Bossons, P., & Gover, S. (2004). *Mentoring – A Henley Review of Best Practice*. Hampshire: Palgrave MacMillan.
- Creswell, J. W. (2007). *Qualitative Inquiry & Research Design – Choosing Among Five Approaches* (2nd ed.). London: Sage.

- Cribb, J., Disney, R., & Sibiet, L. (2014). The public sector workforce – past, present and future. *Institute for Fiscal Studies*. Retrieved from <http://www.ifs.org.uk/bns/bn145.pdf>
- Crotty, M. (1998). *The foundation of Social Research: Meaning and Perspectives in the Research Process*. London: Sage.
- Cummings, T. G., & Worley, C. G. (2005). *Organization Development and Change* (9<sup>th</sup> ed.). UK: Cengage Learning.
- D'Abate, C., Eddy, E., & Tannenbaum S. (2003). What's in a name? A literature-based approach to understanding mentoring, coaching and other constructs that describe developmental interactions. *Human Resource Development Review*, 2(4), 360-384.
- Daloz, L. (1986). *Effective teaching and mentoring*. San Francisco: Jossey Bass.
- Daloz, L. (2012). *Mentor - Guiding the Journey of Adult Learners*. San Francisco: Jossey Bass.
- DeMarco, R. (1993). Mentorship: a feminist critique of current research. *Journal of Advanced Nursing*, 18, 1242-1250.
- Deal, T., & Kennedy, A. (1982). *A Corporate Culture*. Addison-Wesley, Reading, MA.
- Del Valle, I. D., & Castillo, M. A. S. (2009). Human capital and sustainable competitive advantage - an analysis of the relationship between training and performance. *International Entrepreneurship Management Journal*, 5, 139–163. Retrieved from <http://www.mmu.ac.uk/JOURNALS/Entrepreneurship%20journals/Human%20capital%20and%20sustainable%20competitive%20advantage.pdf>
- Denzin, N. K., & Lincoln, Y. S. (Eds). (2003). *Collecting and interpreting qualitative materials*, (2nd ed.). London: Sage.
- Department for Business Innovation & Skills. (2012). *Mentoring Policy – The Action Plan*. Retrieved from <https://www.gov.uk/government/publications/mentoring-policy-the-action-plan> and [https://www.gov.uk/government/uploads/system/uploads/attachment\\_data/file/34620/12-1164-mentoring-policy-action-plan.pdf](https://www.gov.uk/government/uploads/system/uploads/attachment_data/file/34620/12-1164-mentoring-policy-action-plan.pdf).
- Department for Business Innovation & Skills. (2013). News story - 27,000 mentors to support small businesses. Retrieved from <https://www.gov.uk/government/news/27-000-mentors-to-support-small-businesses>.
- Deubel, P. (2006). The Value of Connectivism. *THE Journal*. Retrieved from [https://thejournal.com/articles/2006/09/06/the-value-of-connectivism.aspx?sc\\_lang=en](https://thejournal.com/articles/2006/09/06/the-value-of-connectivism.aspx?sc_lang=en).
- Devos, A. (2007). Mentoring and the new curriculum of academic work. *Journal of Organisational Transformation and Social Change*, 4(3), 225-236.
- Dewey, J. (1910). *How we think*. New York, USA: Heath & Co. Retrieved from <https://archive.org/stream/howwethink00deweiala#page/n3/mode/2up>.

- Dochy, F., Gijbels, D., Segers, M., & Van den Bossche, P. (2011). *Theories of Learning for the Workplace – Building blocks for training and professional development programmes*. London: Routledge.
- Dougherty, T. W., & Dreher, G. F. (2007). Mentoring and career outcomes: Conceptual and methodological issues in an emerging literature. In B. R. Ragins & K. E. Kram (Eds.), *The handbook of mentoring at work: theory, research and practice* (pp. 51-93). London: Sage.
- Douglas, C. A., & McCauley, C. D. (1999). Formal developmental relationships: a survey of organizational practices. *Human Resource Development Quarterly*, 10, 203-220.
- Duck, S. (1986). *Friends, For Life – The psychology of close relationships*. Sussex: The Harvester Press Ltd.
- Easterby-Smith, M., Thorpe, R., & Jackson, P. R. (2008). *Management Research: An Introduction* (2<sup>nd</sup> ed.). London: Sage.
- Easterby-Smith, M., Thorpe, R., & Jackson, P. R. (2012). *Management Research* (4<sup>th</sup> ed.). London: Sage.
- Ebbinghaus, H. (1987). *Translation of Memory: A Contribution to Experimental Psychology*. New York: Dover Publications.
- Eby, L. T., & Allen, T. D. (2008). Moving toward interdisciplinary dialogue in mentoring scholarship: An introduction to the Special Issue. *Journal of Vocational Behavior*, 72, 159-167.
- Eby, L. T., Butts, M., Lockwood, A., & Simon, S. (2004). Protégés negative mentoring experiences: Construct development and nomological validation. *Personnel Psychology*, 57, 411-447.
- Eby, L. T. & Lockwood, A. (2005). Proteges' and mentors' reactions to participating in formal mentoring programs: A qualitative investigation. *Journal of Vocational Behavior*, 67, 441-458.
- Eby, L. T., Lockwood, A. L., & Butts, M. (2006). Perceived support for mentoring: A multiple perspectives approach. *Journal of Vocational Behavior*, 68, 267-291.
- Eby, L. T., McManus, S. E., Simon, S. A., & Russell, J. E. A. (2000). The protégés perspective regarding negative mentoring experiences: the development of a taxonomy. *Journal of Vocational Behavior*, 57, 1-21.
- Eby, L. T., & McManus, S. E. (2004). The protégé role in negative mentoring experiences. *Journal of Vocational Behavior*, 68(2), 267-291.
- Eby, L.T., Rhodes, J. E., & Allen, T. D. (2010). Definition and Evolution of Mentoring. In T. D Allen & L. T. Eby (Eds.), *The Blackwell Handbook of Mentoring: A Multiple Perspectives Approach* (pp. 7-20). Sussex: Wiley-Blackwell.

- Eddy, E. R., Tannenbaum, S. I., Lorenzet, S. J., & Smith-Jentsch, K. A. (2005). The Influence of a Continuous Learning Environment on Peer Mentoring Behaviors. *Journal of Managerial Issues*, 17, 383-395.
- Edwards, P. (2006). Industrial Relations and Critical Realism: IR's Tacit Contribution. *Warwick Papers in Industrial Relations*, 80, 1-20. Retrieved from: [https://www2.warwick.ac.uk/fac/soc/wbs/research/irru/wpir/wpir\\_80\\_pe.pdf](https://www2.warwick.ac.uk/fac/soc/wbs/research/irru/wpir/wpir_80_pe.pdf)
- Edwards, P., O'Mahoney, J., & Vincent, S. (2014). *Studying Organizations Using Critical Realism – A Practical Guide*. Oxford: OUP.
- Egan, T. M. (2005). The Impact of Learning Goal Orientation Similarity on Formal Mentoring Relationship Outcomes. *Advances in Developing Human Resources*, 7(4), 489-504
- Egan, T. M., & Song, Z. (2008). Are facilitated mentoring programs beneficial? A randomized experimental field study. *Journal of Vocational Behavior*, 72, 351-362.
- Eisenhardt, K. M. (1989). Building Theories from Case Study Research. *Academy of Management Review*, 14(4), 532-550.
- Elcock, K. (2012). Fundamental failings show up the organisational culture of the NHS – Letters *Nursing Standard*, 26, 947.
- Elliott, B., & Calderhead, J. (1994). Mentoring for Teacher Development: Possibilities and Caveats. In D. McIntyre, et al. (Eds.), *Mentoring Perspectives on School-Based Teacher Education* (pp. 220-233). London: Kogan Page.
- EMCC. (2003). Ethical Code & Competency Framework. *European Mentoring and Coaching Council website*. Retrieved from <http://www.emccouncil.org>.
- EMCC. (2016). Competency Framework. *European Mentoring and Coaching Council website*. Retrieved from <http://www.emccouncil.org/webimages/EU/EIA/emcc-competence-framework-v2.pdf>
- EMCC. (2016). Guidelines on Supervision. *European Mentoring and Coaching Council website*. Retrieved from <http://www.emccouncil.org/src/ultimo/models/Download/7.pdf>
- Emerson, M. (1976). Social Exchange Theory. *Annual Review of Sociology*, 2, 335-362.
- Emsley, C. (1991). *The English Police*. Harlow: Addison Wesley Longman.
- Ehrich, C., & Hansford, B. C. (2008). Mentoring in the public sector. *Practical Experiences in Professional Education*, 11(1), 1-58. Retrieved from: <http://eprints.qut.edu.au/17133/1/17133.pdf>
- Ensher, E. A., & Murphy, S. E. (1997). Effects of Race, Gender, Perceived Similarity, and Contact on Mentor Relationships. *Journal of Vocational Behavior*, 50, 460-481.
- Eraut, M. (2000). Non-formal learning and tacit knowledge in professional work. *British Journal of Educational Psychology*, 70, 113-136.

- Eraut, M. (2004). Informal learning in the workplace. *Studies in Continuing Education*, 26(2), 247-273.
- Eraut, M. (2007). Learning from other people in the workplace. *Oxford Review of Education*, 33(1), 403-422.
- Evans, G. (2011). Second order observations on a coaching programme: the changes in organisational culture. *International Journal of Evidence Based Coaching and Mentoring*, Special Issue (5), 70-87.
- Faragher, J. (2014). 70:20:10 – a model approach for learning? *Personnel Today*. Retrieved from <http://www.personneltoday.com/hr/702010-a-model-approach-for-learning/>
- Farquhar, J. D. (2012). *Case Study Research for Business*. London: Sage.
- Fenwick, T. (2003). *Learning through experience: Troubling orthodoxies and intersecting questions*. Malabar, FL: Krieger.
- Field, J. (2003). *Social Capital*. Routledge: London.
- Fisher, C. (2004). *Researching and writing a dissertation for business students*. Essex: FT Prentice Hall/Pearson Education Ltd.
- Fletcher, S. J., & Mullen, C. A. (2012). (Eds). *The SAGE handbook of mentoring and coaching in education*. London: Sage.
- Flick, U. (2006). *An introduction to Qualitative Research* (3rd ed.). London: Sage.
- Flick, U. (2009). *An Introduction to Qualitative Research* (4th ed.). London: Sage.
- Flynn, M. (2010). Mandatory retirement in the police service - the case of the London MPS. *Policing: An International Journal of Police Strategies and Management*, 33(2), 376-391.
- Francis, R. QC. (2013). *Report of the Mid Staffordshire NHS Foundation Trust Public Inquiry Executive summary*. London: The Stationery Office. Retrieved from [https://www.gov.uk/government/uploads/system/uploads/attachment\\_data/file/279124/0947.pdf](https://www.gov.uk/government/uploads/system/uploads/attachment_data/file/279124/0947.pdf)
- Gagne, R. M. (1965). *The Conditions of Learning*. New York: Holt, Rinehart & Winston.
- Gagne, R M. (1972). Domains of learning. *Interchange*, 3, 1-8.
- Garvey, B. (2010), Mentoring for leaders and managers. In J. Gold, R. Thorpe, & A. Mumford, (Eds.), *Gower Handbook of Leadership and Management Development* (5th ed.) (pp.423-39). Farnham: Gower Publishing.
- Garvey, B. (2014). Mentoring in a Coaching World. In E. Cox, T. Bachkirova, & D. Clutterbuck (Eds.), *The Complete Handbook of Coaching* (pp.361-374). London: Sage.



- Garvey, R., Stokes, P., & Megginson, D. (2009). *Coaching and Mentoring – Theory and Practice*. London: Sage.
- Garvey, B., Stokes, P., & Megginson, D. (2014). *Coaching and Mentoring – theory and practice*. (2nd ed.). London: Sage.
- Gay, B., & Stephenson, J. (1998). The mentoring dilemma: guidance and/or direction? *Mentoring & Tutoring*, 6(1), 43-54.
- Gennard, J., & Judge, G. (2014). *Managing Employment Relations*. (5<sup>th</sup> ed.). London: CIPD.
- Germain, M-L. (2011). Formal mentoring relationships and attachment theory: Implications for Human Resource Development. *Human Resource Development Review*, 10(2), 123-150.
- Gibson, S. K. (2004). Mentoring in business and industry: the need for a phenomenological perspective. *Mentoring & Tutoring*, 12(2), 259-275.
- Gibson, S.K. (2005). Whose best interests are served? The Distinction between Mentoring and Support. *Advances in Developing Human Resources*, 7(4), 470-488.
- Giddens, A., & Sutton, P. W. (2013). *Sociology*. (7<sup>th</sup> ed.). Cambridge, UK: Polity Press.
- Gillham, B. (2001). *Case Study Research Methods*. London: Continuum.
- Gingrich, J. (2014) Varying Costs to Change? Institutional Change in the Public Sector. *Governance*, 28(1), 41–60.
- Glasper, A. Prof. (2013). Making the NHS develop a culture of openness. *British Journal of Nursing*, 22(6), 346-347.
- Godshalk, V. M., & Sosik, J. J. (2003). Aiming for career success: The role of learning goal orientation in mentoring relationships. *Journal of Vocational Behavior*, 63, 417-437.
- Goffee, R., & Jones, G. (1998). *The Character of a Corporation*. London: Harper Business.
- Goleman, D. (1996). *Emotional Intelligence: Why it Can Matter More Than IQ*. London: Bloomsbury.
- Gopee, N. (2011). *Mentoring and Supervision in Healthcare*. (2nd ed.). London: Sage. Retrieved from [http://www.sagepub.com/sites/default/files/upm-binaries/39882\\_9780857024190.pdf](http://www.sagepub.com/sites/default/files/upm-binaries/39882_9780857024190.pdf)
- Grace, M., & Holloway, E. (2010). Running Head: The Mentoring Triad. *The International Journal of Mentoring and Coaching*, 8(1), 2-23.
- Gray, D. (2014). *Doing Research in the Real World* (3<sup>rd</sup> ed.). London: Sage.
- Guest, D. (1998). Beyond HRM: commitment and the contract culture. In P. Sparrow., & M. Marchington. (Eds.) *Human Resource Management: The New Agenda*. London: Financial Times.



- Gulam, W., & Zulfiqar, M. (1998). Mentoring – Dr Plum’s elixir and the Alchemists stone. *Mentoring & Tutoring*, 5(3), 39-45.
- Guthrie, E. R. (1935). *The psychology of learning*. New York: Harper & Row.
- Hagerty, B. (1986). A second look at mentors. *Nursing Outlook*, 34(1), 16-24.
- Hale, R. (2000). To match or mis-match? The dynamics of mentoring as a route to personal and organizational learning. *Career Development International*, 5(4/5), 223-234.
- Hamlin R.G., & Sage, L. (2011). Behavioural Criteria of Mentoring Effectiveness: An empirical study of mentor and mentee behaviour within formal mentoring relationships. *Journal of European Industrial Training*, 38(8/9), 752-778.
- Handy, C. (1991). *Gods of Management – The Changing Work of Organisations*. (3<sup>rd</sup> ed.). London: Business Books.
- Hansford, B., Tennent, L., & Ehrich, L. C. (2002). Business Mentoring: Help or hindrance? *Mentoring & Tutoring: Partnership in Learning* 10(2), 101-115.
- Harrison, R. (2009). *Learning and Development* (5<sup>th</sup> ed.). London: CIPD.
- Harvey, M., Napier, N. K., Moeller, M., & Williams, L. A. (2010). Mentoring Global Dual-Career Couples: A social learning perspective. *Journal of Applied Social Psychology*, 40(1), 212-240.
- Hays. (2012). *The changing face of the public sector – how employers need to adapt*. Retrieved from [http://www.hays.co.uk/cs/groups/hays\\_common/documents/webassets/hays\\_654068.pdf](http://www.hays.co.uk/cs/groups/hays_common/documents/webassets/hays_654068.pdf)
- Hegstad, C. D., & Wentling, R. M. (2005). Organizational antecedents and moderators that impact on the effectiveness of exemplary formal mentoring programs in Fortune 500 companies in the United States. *Human Resource Development International*, 8(4), 467-487.
- Hergenhahn, B. R., & Olson, M. H. (2001). *An Introduction to Theories of Learning* (6<sup>th</sup> ed.). Pine Tree Composition, US: Prentice Hall.
- Hersey, P., & Blanchard, K. H. (1982). *Management of Organizational Behaviour - Utilizing Human Resources* (4<sup>th</sup> ed.). New York: Prentice Hall.
- Hezlett, S. A. (2005). Protégés learning in mentoring relationships: A review of the literature and an exploratory case study. *Advances in Developing Human Resources*, 7(4), 505-526.
- Hezlett, S. A., & Gibson, S. K. (2005). Mentoring and human resources development: Where we are and where we need to go. *Advances in Developing Human Resources*, 4(4), 446-469.
- Hezlett, S. A., & Gibson, S. K. (2007). Linking Mentoring and Social Capital: Implications for Career and Organization Development. *Advances in Developing Human Resources*, 9, 384-412.
- Higgins M. C., & Kram K. E. (2001). Reconceptualizing mentoring at work: a developmental network perspective. *Academy of Management Review*, 26(2), 264-288.

- Higgins, M. C., & Thomas, D. A. (2001). Constellations and careers: toward understanding the effects of multiple developmental relationships. *Journal of Organizational Behavior*, 22, 223-247.
- Hinde, R. A. (1981). The Bases of a Science of Interpersonal Relationships. In S. Duck & R. Gilmour (Eds.), *Personal Relationships 1: Studying Personal Relationships* (pp.1-22). London: Academic Press.
- Hitchcock G., & Hughes D. (1989). *Research and the teacher – a qualitative introduction to school-based research*. London: Routledge.
- Hoigaard, R., & Mathisen, P. (2009). Benefits of Formal Mentoring for Female Leaders. *International Journal of Evidence Based Coaching and Mentoring*, 7(2), 64–70.
- Home Office. (2010). *Assessment of women in the police service*. London: Home Office.
- Hudson, D. (2015). The NHS in numbers. *NHS Employers*. Retrieved from <http://www.nhsemployers.org/news/2015/07/the-nhs-workforce-in-numbers>.
- Hudson, F. M. Dr. (1999). *The handbook of Coaching*. San Francisco: Jossey-Bass.
- Hull, C. L. (1943). *Principles of behaviour*. Englewood Cliffs, NY: Prentice Hall.
- Hunt, J. M., & Weintraub, J. R. (2011). *The Coaching Manager – developing top talent in business* (2<sup>nd</sup> ed.). Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.
- Hunt, S. (2015). Key statistics on the NHS. *NHS Confederation*. Retrieved from <http://www.nhsconfed.org/resources/key-statistics-on-the-nhs.23/11/15>.
- ILM. (2016). Level 5 Coaching and Mentoring. *Institute of Leadership and Management website* Retrieved from <https://www.i-l-m.com/Learning-and-Development/management/coaching-and-mentoring/8580-level-5-coaching-and-mentoring>
- Jacobi, M. (1991). Mentoring and undergraduate academic success: a literature review. *Review of Educational Research*, 61(4), 505–532.
- James, E. H. (2000). Race-related differences in promotion and support: Underlying effects of human and social capital. *Organization Science*, 11(5), 493-508.
- Janasz de, S., S. J. Behson, K. Jonsen & M. L. Lankau. (2013). Dual sources of support for dual roles: how mentoring and work-family culture influence work-family conflict and job attitudes. *The International Journal of Human Resource Management*, 24(7), 1435-1453.
- Jarvis, P. (1995). *Adult and Continuing Education*. (2nd ed.). London: Routledge.
- Jennings, C. (2008). *The point-of-need: Where effective learning really matters*. Advance: Saffron Interactive, London.

- Jennings, C. (2010). *Five Barriers to Effective Learning in Organisations*. Retrieved from <http://charles-jennings.blogspot.co.uk/2010/04/five-barriers-to-effective-learning-in.html>.
- Jones, J. (2008). What makes an effective mentor within the HE sector? *The International Journal of Mentoring and Coaching*, 4(3), 12-28.
- Jones, J. (2009). Mentoring in the Milky Way – reviewing the constellations of relationships. *The International Journal of Mentoring and Coaching*, 7(2), 3-24.
- Jones, J. (2012). An Analysis of Learning Outcomes Within Formal Mentoring Relationships. *The International Journal of Evidence Based Coaching and Mentoring*, 10(1), 57-73.
- Jones, J. (2013). Factors influencing mentees' and mentors' learning throughout formal mentoring relationships. *Human Resource Development International*, 16(4), 390-408.
- Jones, J. (2014). Calling all line managers - Learning needs your support. Being ambivalent is not helping! *Submission for the CMI Article of the Year Competition*, 1-7.  
<http://www.managers.org.uk/individuals/existing-members/get-involved/management-articles-of-the-year>
- Kalleberg, A. L. (2003). Flexible firms and Labor Market Segmentation. *Work and Occupations*, 30(2), 154-175.
- Kammeyer-Mueller, J. D., & Judge, T. A. (2008). A quantitative review of mentoring research: Test of a model. *Journal of Vocational Behavior*, 72, 269-283.
- Kearns, P. (2005). *Evaluating The ROI From Learning: How to Develop Value-based Training*. London: CIPD.
- Khan, M. T. (2014). Effects of Education and Training on “Human Capital - And Effects of Human Capital on Economic Activity (A Literature Based Research). *International Journal of Information, Business and Management*, 6(3), 90-105.
- Kirkpatrick, D. (1996). Great ideas revisited: Techniques for evaluating training programs. *Training and Development*, 50(1), 54-59.
- Kirkpatrick, J., & Kirkpatrick, W. K. (2009). *The Kirkpatrick Four levels – a fresh look after 50 years 1959-2009*. Retrieved from <http://www.kirkpatrickpartners.com/Portals/0/Resources/Kirkpatrick%20Four%20Levels%20white%20paper.pdf>.
- Klinge, C. M. (2015). A Conceptual Framework for Mentoring in a Learning Organization. *Adult Learning*, 26(4), 160-166.
- Knowles, M. S., Holton III, E. F., & Swanson, R. A. (2015). *The Adult Learner – The Definitive Classic in Adult Education and Human Resource Development* (8th ed.). London: Routledge.
- Kochan, F., Searby, L., George, M. P., & Edge, J. M. (2015). Cultural influences in mentoring endeavors: applying the Cultural Framework Analysis Process. *International Journal of Mentoring and Coaching in Education*, 4(2), 86-106.

- Kohler, W. (1929). *Gestalt psychology*. New York: Liveright.
- Kolb, D. A. (1984). *Experimental learning: Experience as the source of Learning and Development*. Englewood Cliffs, NJ: Prentice Hall.
- Konteh, F. H., Mannion, R., & Davies, H. T. O. (2010). Understanding culture and culture management in the English NHS: a comparison of professional and patient perspectives. *Journal of Evaluation in Clinical Practice*, 17, 111-117.
- Kraiger, K., Ford, J. K., & Salas, E. (1993). Application of cognitive, skill-based, and affective theories of learning outcomes to new methods of training evaluation. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 78, 311-328.
- Kram, K. E. (1985). *Mentoring at work*. Glenview: Scott, Foresman & Co.
- Kram, .K. E. (1988). *Mentoring at work: Developmental relationships in organizational life*. London: University Press of America.
- Kram, K. E. (1996). A relational approach to career development in D. Hall & Associates (Eds). *The career is dead – long live the career; a relational approach to careers* (pp.132-157). San Francisco: Jossey- Bass.
- Kulkarni, K. (2014). NHS leaders note: organisational culture is key Views & Reviews Personal View. *The British Medical Journal*. Retrieved from <http://www.bmj.com/content/349/bmj.g4814.p1-3>
- Kumar, P., & Blake-Beard, S. (2012). What Good is Bad Mentorship? Proteges Perception of Negative Mentoring Experiences. *The Indian Journal of Industrial Relations*, 48(1), 79-93.
- Labianca, G., & Brass, D. J. (2006). Exploring the social ledger: Negative relationships and negative asymmetry in social networks in organizations. *Academy of Management Review*, 31, 596-614.
- Laiho, M., & Brandt. T. (2012). Views of HR specialists on formal mentoring - current situation and prospects for the future. *Career Development International*, 17(5), 435-457.
- Lankau, M. J., & Scandura, T. A. (2002). An Investigation of Personal Learning in Mentoring Relationships: Content, Antecedents, and Consequences. *The Academy of Management Journal*, 45(4), 779-790.
- Lankau, M. J., & Scandura, T. A. (2007). Mentoring as a Forum for Personal Learning in Organizations. In B. R. Ragins, & K. E. Kram (Eds.), *The Handbook of Mentoring at Work – Theory, Research and Practice* (pp. 95-122). London: Sage.
- Lee, T., Fuller. A., Ashton. D., Butler. P., Felstead, A., Unwin. L., & Walters, S. (2004). Workplace Learning: Main Themes & Perspectives. Learning as Work Research Paper. *The Centre for Labour Market Studies* No. 2.
- Legge, K. (2005). *Human Resource Management – Rhetorics and Realities*. Hampshire: Palgrave.

- Lentz, E., & Allen, T. D. (2009). The role of mentoring others in the career plateauing phenomenon. *Group & Organization Management*, 34, 358–384.
- Lester, P. B., Hannah, S. T., Harms, P. D., Vogelgesang, G. R., & Avolio, B. J. (2011). Mentoring Impact on Leader Efficacy Development: A Field Experiment. *Academy of Management Learning and Education*, 10, 409-429.
- Levinson, D. J., Darrow, C. N., Klein, E. B., Levinson, M. H., & McKee, B. (1978). *The Seasons of a Man's Life*. New York: Ballantine.
- Levinson, D. J. (1996). *The Seasons of a Woman's Life*. New York: Ballantine.
- Lin, N. (1976). *Foundations of Social Research*. New York: McGraw.
- Lincoln, Y. S., & Guba, E. G. (1985). *Naturalistic Inquiry*. Beverly Hills, CA: Sage.
- Lipsey, R., & Chrystal, A. (2015). *Economics*. (13<sup>th</sup> ed.). London: OUP.
- Liu, D., Liu, J., Kwan, H. K., & Mao, Y. (2009). What can I gain as a mentor? The effect of mentoring on the job performance and social status of mentors in China. *Journal of Occupational and Organizational Psychology*, 82, 871-895.
- Lok, P., & Crawford, J. (2004). The effect of organisational culture and leadership style on job satisfaction and organisational commitment. *Journal of Management Development*, 23(4), 321-338.
- Lowndes, V. (2005). Something old, something new, something borrowed...How institutions change (and stay the same) in local governance. *Policy Studies*, 26(3/4), 291-309.
- MacLennan, N. (1999). *Coaching and Mentoring*. Hampshire: Gower
- McCall, M.W., Lombardo, M.M., & Morrison, A.M. (1988). *The lessons of experience: How successful executives develop on the job*. Lexington, MA: Lexington Books.
- McCauley, C. D., & Young, D. P. (1993). Creating developmental relationships: Roles and strategies. *Human Resource Management Review*, 2, 219-230.
- McCullum, K. (2010). Passing the Baton. *OfficePRO*, 16-19.
- McDowall-Long, K. (2004). Mentoring relationships: implications for practitioners and suggestions for future research. *Human Resource Development International*, 7(4), 519-534.
- Machin, S. (2002). *The Changing Nature of Labour Demand in the New Economy and Skill-Biased Technology Change*. Retrieved from <http://personal.lse.ac.uk/machin/pdf/changes%20in%20labour%20demand%20and%20sbtc%20april%202002.pdf>
- Maddock, S. (1999). *Challenging women – gender, culture and organization*. London: Sage.

- Mann, R., Ball, K., & Watson, G. (2011). Mentoring for NHS general practitioners: a prospective pilot study of an action learning approach. *Education for Primary Care*, 22(4), 235-240.
- Manuti, A., Serafina, P., Scardigno, A. F., Giancaspro, M. L., & Morciano, D. (2015). Formal and informal learning in the workplace: a research review. *International Journal of Training and Development*, 19(1), 1-17.
- Marx, K. (1995). *Capital – a new abridgement*. Oxford: OUP.
- Maykut, P., & Morehouse, R. (2005). *Beginning Qualitative Research: A Philosophical and Practical Guide*. London: The Falmer Press.
- Maylor, H., & Blackmon, K. (2005). *Researching Business and Management*. Hampshire: Palgrave Macmillan.
- Meaklim, T., & Sims, J. (2011). Leading powerful partnerships – a new model of public sector leadership development. *The International Journal of Leadership in Public Services*, 7(1), 21–31.
- Meggison, D., & Clutterbuck, D. (2005). *Mentoring in Action – A Practical Guide for Managers* (2<sup>nd</sup> ed.). London: Kogan Page.
- Meggison, D., Clutterbuck, D., Garvey, B., Stokes, P., & Garrett-Harris, R. (2006). *Mentoring in Action*, (2nd ed.). London: Kogan Page.
- Menges, C. (2015). Toward Improving the Effectiveness of Formal Mentoring Programs: Matching by Personality Matters. *Group & Organization Management*, 1-32.
- Merriam, S. (1983). Mentors and protégés: a critical review of the literature. *Adult Education Quarterly*, 33(3), 161-173.
- Merriam, S. B., Caffarella, R. S., & Baumgartner, L. M. (2007). *Learning in Adulthood – a comprehensive guide* (3rd ed.). San Francisco: Jossey-Bass.
- Mezirow, J. (1991). *Transformative dimensions of adult learning*. San Francisco, CA: Jossey-Bass.
- Miles, M. B., & Huberman, A. M. (1994). *Qualitative Data Analysis – an Expanded Source book*. London: Sage.
- Miller, W. (1999). *Cops and Bobbies* (2<sup>nd</sup> ed.). Columbus, OH: Ohio State University Press.
- Monaghan, J., & Lunt, N. (1992). Mentoring; persons, processes, practice and problems. *The British Journal of Educational Studies*, 11(3), 117-133.
- Morris, A., & Shinn, M. (1999). Contextual factors affecting the organizational commitment of diverse police officers: A levels of analysis perspective. *American Journal of Community Psychology*, 27(1), 75-105.
- Morris, J. (2004). The future of work: organizational and international perspectives. *The International Journal of Human Resource Management*, 15(2), 263-275.



- Nahapiet, J., & Ghosal, S. (1998). Social capital, intellectual capital, and the organizational advantage. *Academy of Management Review*, 23(2), 242-268.
- National Statistics. (2015). *Police Workforce, England and Wales*. March 2015. Retrieved from <https://www.gov.uk/government/publications/police-workforce-england-and-wales-31-march-2015/police-workforce-england-and-wales-31-march-2015>
- NHS Choices. (2015). *The history of the NHS in England*. Retrieved from <http://www.nhs.uk/NHSEngland/thenhs/nhshistory/Pages/NHShistory1990s.aspx> 23/11/15
- Novak, T. (1988). *Poverty and the state: an historical sociology*. Milton Keynes: OUP
- O'Brien, V. (2003). It's all in who you know. *BC Business*, 31(12), 19.
- O'Mahoney, J., & Vincent, S. (2014). In P. Edwards., J. O'Mahoney., & S. Vincent, S. (Eds.), *Studying Organizations Using Critical Realism – A Practical Guide* (pp. 1-20). Oxford: OUP.
- Olian, J.D., Carroll, S. J., Giannantonio, C. M & Feren. D. B. (1988). What do protégés look for in a mentor? Results of three experimental studies. *Journal of Vocational Behavior*, 33(1), 15-37.
- Owen, H. (2011). *The complete guide to mentoring*. London: Kogan Page.
- Oxford Dictionaries. (2016). Retrieved from <http://www.oxforddictionaries.com/definition/english/mentor>
- Papastravrou, E., Lambrinou, E., Tsangari, H., Saarikoski, M., & Leino-Kilpi, H. (2010). Student nurses experience of learning in the clinical environment. *Nurse Education in Practice*, 10(3), 176-182.
- Parise. M. R., & Forret, M. L. (2008). Formal mentoring programs: The relationship of program design and support to mentors' perceptions of benefits and costs. *Journal of Vocational Behavior*, 72, 225-240.
- Parlett, M., & Hamilton, D. (1977). Evaluation as Illumination. In D. Hamilton., D. Jenkins., C. King., B. Macdonald, & M. Parlett (Eds.), *Beyond the numbers game* (pp.181-189). Basingstoke: Macmillan.
- Parsloe, E., & Wray, M. (2004). *Coaching and Mentoring - Practical Methods for Improving Learning*. London: Kogan Page.
- Passmore, J. (Ed.). (2015). *Excellence in Coaching – The Industry Guide*. (3<sup>rd</sup> ed.). London: Kogan Page.
- Pate, J., Beaumont, P., & Stewart, S. (2007) Trust in senior management in the public sector *Employee Relations*, 29(5), 458-468.
- Patton, M. Q. (2002). *Qualitative research and evaluation methods* (3<sup>rd</sup> ed.). Thousand Oaks, C.A: Sage.

- Pavlov, I. P. (1927). *Conditioned reflexes*. London: Oxford University Press.
- Perrons, D. (2003). The New Economy and the Work–Life Balance: Conceptual Explorations and a Case Study of New Media. *Gender, Work and Organization*, 10(1), 65-93.
- Philip, K., & Hendry, L.B. (2000). Making Sense of Mentoring or Mentoring Making Sense? Reflections on the Mentoring Process by Adult Mentors with Young People. *Journal of Community & Applied Social Psychology*, 10, 211–223.
- Phillips, J. J. & Phillips, P.P. (2015). *High-impact human capital strategy - addressing the 12 major challenges today's organizations face*. USA: AMACOM.
- Phinney, J. S., Torres Campos, C.M., Padilla Kallemeyn, D.M., & Kim C. (2011). Processes and Outcomes of a Mentoring Program for Latino College Freshmen. *Journal of Social Issues*, 67(3), 599–621.
- Piaget, J. (1966). *Psychology of intelligence*. Totowa, NJ: Littlefield, Adams.
- Podolny, J. M., & Baron, J. N. (1997). Resources and relationships: Social networks and mobility in the workplace. *American Sociological Review*, 62, 673-693.
- Podsakoff, P. M., MacKenzie, S. B., Lee, J.-Y., & Podsakoff, N. P. (2003). Common method biases in behavioral research: A critical review of the literature and recommended remedies. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 88, 879-903.
- Pollock, R. (1995). A Test of Conceptual Models Depicting the Developmental Course of Informal Mentor-Protégé Relationships in the Workplace. *Journal of Vocational Behavior*, 46(2), 144-162.
- Pratt, D. D. (1988). Andragogy as a Relational Construct. *Adult Education Quarterly*, 38(3), 160-172.
- Raddon, A. (Dr). (2010). *Early Stage Research Training: Epistemology & Ontology in Social Science Research slideshow* University of Leicester. Retrieved from: <https://www2.le.ac.uk/colleges/ssah/documents/research-training-presentations/EpistFeb10.pdf>
- Ragins, B. R. (2012). Relational mentoring: a positive approach to mentoring at work. In K. Cameron & G. Spreitzer (Eds.), *The Handbook of Positive Organizational Scholarship* (pp. 519-36). New York: OUP.
- Ragins, B. R., & Cotton, J. L. (1999). Mentor functions and outcomes: A comparison of men and women in formal and informal mentoring relationships. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 84, 529-550.
- Ragins, B. R., Cotton, J. L., & Miller, J. S. (2000). Marginal mentoring: the effects of type of mentor, quality of relationship, and program design on work and career attitudes. *Academy of Management Journal*, 43, 1177-1194.
- Ragins, B. R., & Kram, K. E. (Eds.). (2007). *The Handbook of Mentoring at Work – Theory, Research and Practice*. London: Sage.



- Ragins, B. R., & Scandura, T. A. (1994). Gender differences in expected outcomes of mentoring relationships. *Academy of Management Journal*, 37(4), 957–971.
- Ragins, B. R., & Scandura, T. A. (1997). The way we were: Gender and the termination of mentoring relationships. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 82, 945-953.
- Rajuan, M., Beijaard, D., & Verloop, N. (2007). The role of the cooperating teacher: bridging the gap between the expectations of cooperating teachers and student teachers. *Mentoring & Tutoring*, 15(3), 223-242.
- Read, C. (2013). Analysed: Results of HSJ's women in healthcare survey. *Health Service Journal*. Retrieved from: <http://www.hsj.co.uk/5060497.article>
- Reiner, R. (2012). *The politics of the Police* (4<sup>th</sup> ed.). Oxford: OUP.
- Reynolds, J., Caley, L., & Mason, R. (2002). *How do people learn?* London: CIPD.
- Rigg, C., Stewart, J., & Trehan, K. (2007). *Critical Human Resource Development – Beyond Orthodoxy*. London: Prentice Hall.
- Roberts, A. (2000). Mentoring Revisited: a phenomenological reading of the literature. *Mentoring & Tutoring*, 8(2), 145-170.
- Robson, C. (2011). *Real World Research* (3<sup>rd</sup> ed.). Oxford: Blackwell.
- Roche, G. R. (1979. ) Much ado about mentors. *Harvard Business Review*, 57(1), 14-28.
- Rogers, C.R. (1969). *Freedom to Learn*. Columbus, OH: Merrill.
- Rogers, C. R. (1983). *Freedom to Learn for the 80's*. Columbus, OH: Merrill.
- Rogers, J. (2007). *Adults Learning* (5<sup>th</sup> ed.). Berkshire: OUP.
- Rogow, R. (1989). Book Review – Kram, K. E. (1988) Mentoring at Work. *Personnel Psychology*, 42(4), 924-928.
- Rylatt, A. (2001). *Learning unlimited – transforming learning in the workplace* (2<sup>nd</sup> ed.). London: Kogan Page.
- Sambunjak, D., Straus, S.E., & Marušić, A. (2006). Mentoring in Academic Medicine: A Systematic Review. *The Journal of the American Medical Association*, 296(9), 1103-1115.
- Sarri, K. K. (2011). Mentoring female entrepreneurs: a mentors' training intervention evaluation. *Journal of European Industrial Training*, 35(7), 721-741.
- Saunders, M., Lewis, P., & Thornhill, A. (2016). *Research Methods for Business Students* (7<sup>th</sup> ed.). London: Pearson.
- Sayer, A. (2000). *Realism and Social Science*. London: Sage.

- Scandura, T. A., & Ragins, B. R. (1993). The effects of sex and gender role orientation on mentorship in male-dominated occupations. *Journal of Vocational Behavior*, 43(3), 251-265.
- Schein, E. H. (1996). Three Cultures of Management: The Key to Organizational Learning. *Sloan Management Review*, 9-20.
- Scott, D. (2005). Critical Realism and Empirical Research Methods in Education. *Journal of Philosophy of Education*, 39(4), 633-646.
- Seibert, S. E., Kraimer, M. L., & Liden, R. C. (2001). A social capital theory of career success. *Academy of Management Journal*, 44(2), 219-237.
- Senge, P. M. (2006). *The Fifth Discipline – The Art and Practice of the Learning Organization*. London: Random House Business
- Shambaugh, R. (2007). It's Not a Glass Ceiling, It's a Sticky Floor - Free Yourself From the Hidden Behaviors Sabotaging Your Career Success. New York: McGraw-Hill.
- Shea, G. F. (1992). *Mentoring; a guide to the basics*. London: Kogan Page.
- Shea, G. F. (2002). *Mentoring – how to develop successful mentor behaviors* (3<sup>rd</sup> ed.). Boston: Thomson.
- Seifert, R. (1996). *Human Resource Management in Schools*. London: Pitman.
- Siegel, P. H., Schultz, T., & Landy, S. (2011). Formal Versus Informal Mentoring Of MAS Professionals *Journal of Applied Business Research*, 27(2), 5-11.
- Siemens, G. (2005). Connectivism: A learning theory for the digital age. *International Journal of Instructional Technology & Distance Learning*. Retrieved from [http://www.itdl.org/Journal/Jan\\_05/article01.htm](http://www.itdl.org/Journal/Jan_05/article01.htm).
- Silverman, D. (2013). *Doing Qualitative Research*. (4<sup>th</sup> ed.). London: Sage.
- Silvestri, M. (2003). *Women in Charge – Policing, gender and leadership*. Devon: Willan Publishing.
- Simon, S. A., & Eby, L. T. (2003). A Typology of Negative Mentoring Experiences: A Multidimensional Scaling Study. *Human Relations* 56(9), 1083-1106.
- Simons, H. (1996). The Paradox of Case Study. *Cambridge Journal of Education*, 26(2), 225-240.
- Singleton, R. A., Straits, B. C., & Straits, M. M. (1993). *Approaches to Social Research* (2nd ed.). New York: Oxford University Press.
- Singh, R., Ragins, B. R., & Tharenou, P. (2009). What matters most? The relative role of mentoring and career capital in career success. *Journal of Vocational Behavior*, 75, 56-67.
- Skinner, B. F. (1987). *Upon further reflection*. Englewood Cliffs, NY: Prentice Hall.

- Skolnick, J. (2006). A sketch of the policeman's 'working personality' . In T. Newburn (Ed.), *Policing – Key Readings* (pp.264-279). Devon: Willan Publishing.
- Snell, P. (2009). Mentors can deliver real public sector gains. *The Guardian*. Retrieved from: <https://www.theguardian.com/society/2009/dec/02/mentors-public-sector-leaders>
- Snoeren, M. M. W. C., Raaijmakers, R., Niessen, T. J. H., & Abma. T. A. (2016). Mentoring with(in) care: A co-constructed auto-ethnography of mutual learning. *Journal of Organizational Behavior*, 37(1), 3-22.
- Sontag, L., Vappie, K., & Wanberg, C.R. (2007) . The Practice of Mentoring. In B. R. Ragins & K. E. Kram (Eds.), *The Handbook of Mentoring at Work – Theory, Research and Practice* (pp. 593-616). London: Sage.
- Stake, R. E. (1978). The Case Study Method in Social Inquiry. *Educational Researcher*, 7(2), 5-8.
- Starcevich, M.M. (2009). Coach, Mentor: Is there a difference? *Center for Coaching and Mentoring, Inc.* Retrieved from: <http://www.coachingandmentoring.com/Articles/mentoring.html>
- Steven, A., Oxley, J., & Fleming, W. G. (2008). Mentoring for NHS doctors: perceived benefits across the personal-professional interface. *Journal of the Royal Society of Medicine*, 101(11), 552-557.
- St-Jean, E. (2012). Mentoring as professional development for novice entrepreneurs: maximizing the learning. *International Journal of Training & Development*, 16(3), 200-216.
- St-Jean, E., & Audet, J. (2012). The role of mentoring in the learning development of the novice entrepreneur. *International Entrepreneurship & Management*, 8(1), 119-140.
- Stok-Koch, L., Bolhuis, S., & Koopmans, R. (2007). Identifying Factors that Influence Workplace Learning in Postgraduate Medical Education. *Education for Health*, 20(1), 1-9.
- Stone, F. M. (2007). *Coaching, Counseling and Mentoring* ( 2<sup>nd</sup> ed.). USA: AMACOM.
- Storey, J. (2007). *Human Resource Management – a critical text*. (3<sup>rd</sup> ed.). London: Thomson.
- Strathern, M. (1997). Improving ratings: audit in the British university system. *European Review*, 5(3), 305-321.
- Taylor, J., & Furnham, A. (2005). *Learning at work – Excellent Practice from Best Theory*. Hampshire: Palgrave Macmillan.
- Telegraph. (2015). NHS is fifth biggest employer in world. *The Telegraph*. Retrieved from <http://www.telegraph.co.uk/news/uknews/9155130/NHS-is-fifth-biggest-employer-in-world.html>.
- Tepper, B.J. (1995). Upward maintenance tactics in supervisory mentoring and nonmentoring relationships. *Academy of Management Journal*, 38, 1191-1205.

- The British Psychological Society. (2008). *Code of Ethics and Conduct (March 2006)*. Retrieved from <http://www.bps.org.uk/the-society/code-of-conduct/code-of-conduct>
- The Coaching & Mentoring Network. (2008). Retrieved from <http://www.coachingnetwork.org.uk/ResourceCentre>
- The Coaching & Mentoring Network (2016). Retrieved from <http://new.coachingnetwork.org.uk/information-portal/what-are-coaching-and-mentoring>
- Thibodeaux, H.F., & Lowe, R.H. (1996). Convergence of leader-member exchange and mentoring: an investigation of social influence patterns. *Journal of Social Behavior and Personality*, 11(1), 97-114.
- Thomas, G. (2012). *How to do your Case Study – A Guide for Students & Researchers*. London: Sage.
- Thurston, P. W., D'Abate, C. P., & Eddy, E. R. (2012). Mentoring as an HRD Approach: Effects on Employee Attitudes and Contributions Independent of Core Self-Evaluation. *Human Resource Development Quarterly*, 23(2), 139-165.
- Trochim, W. M. K (2006) Structure of Research *Web Centre for Social Research Methods* <http://www.socialresearchmethods.net/kb/strucres.php>
- Tweddell, L. (2008). The birth of the NHS – July 5<sup>th</sup> 1948. *Nursing Times*. Retrieved from <http://www.nursingtimes.net/the-birth-of-the-nhs-july-5th-1948/441954.fullarticle>.
- Tyler, K. (2004). Is it mentoring or coaching? *HR Magazine*, 49(3), 89.
- Tyler, M. A., & McKenzie, W. E. (2011). Mentoring first year police constables: police mentors' perspectives. *Journal of Workplace Learning*, 23(8), 518-530.
- Tzafrir, S. S. (2005) The relationship between trust, HRM practices and firm performance. *The International Journal of Human Resource Management*, 16(9), 1600-1622.
- Villani, S. (2002). *Mentoring Programs for New Teachers*. Thousand Oaks, California: Corwin Press Inc.
- Vroom, V. H. (1995). *Work and Motivation*. San Francisco: Jossey-Bass.
- Waddington, P. A. J. (2006). Police (canteen) sub-culture: an appreciation. In T. Newburn (Ed), *Policing – Key Readings* (pp.364-385). Devon:Willan Publishing.
- Wales Online. (2015). Police must boost female officer numbers to tackle 'changing face of crime.' Retrieved from <http://www.walesonline.co.uk/news/wales-news/police-must-boost-female-officer-10534130>
- Wanberg, C. R., Welsh, E. T., & Hezlett, S. A. (2003). Mentoring Research: A Review and dynamic process model. In J. Martocchio & J. Ferris (Eds), *Research in Personnel and Human Resource Management*, 22, (pp.39-124). Oxford: Elsevier Science.

- Wang, J. (2000). Contexts of mentoring and opportunities for learning to teach; a comparative study of mentoring practice. *Teaching and Teacher Education*, 17, 51-73.
- Wang, Y-H., Hu, C., Hurst, C. S., & Yang, C-C. (2014). Antecedents and outcomes of career plateaus: The roles of mentoring others and proactive personality. *Journal of Vocational Behavior*, 85, 319–328.
- Watson, J. B. (1913). Psychology as the behaviourist views it. *Psychological Review*, 20, 158-177.
- Watson, J. B., & Rayner, R. (1920). Conditioned emotional reactions. *Journal of Experimental Psychology*, 3(1), 1–14.
- Wenger, E. (1999). *Communities of Practice - Learning, Meaning, and Identity*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- Western, S. (2012). *Coaching and Mentoring - A Critical Text*. London: Sage.
- Westmarland, L. (2001). *Gender and Policing - Sex, power and police culture*. Devon: Willan Publishing.
- Whitely, W., Dougherty, T. W., & Dreher, G. F. (1992). Correlates of career-orientated mentoring for early career managers and professionals. *Journal of Organizational Behavior*, 13(2), 141-154.
- Willcox, T. (1987). Mentoring among British Executives. *International Journal of Mentoring* 1(1), 19-23.
- Williams, S. (2014). *Introducing Employment Relations – a critical approach*. (3<sup>rd</sup> ed.). Oxford: OUP.
- Wilson, D., Ashton, J., & Sharp, D. (2001). *What everyone in Britain should know about the Police*. London: Blackstone Press.
- Wright, A. (2002). *Policing – an introduction to concepts and practice*. Devon: Willan Publishing.
- Yavuz, A. (2011). The problematic context of mentoring: evidence from an English language teaching department at a Turkish University. *European Journal of Teacher Education*, 34(1), 43–59.
- Yin, R. K. (2014). *Case Study Research: Design and Methods* (5th ed.). London: Sage.
- Young, L., & Daniel, K. (2003). Affective trust in the workplace *International Journal of Human Resource Management*, 14(1), 139-55.
- Young, A. M., & Perrewe, P. L. (2000). What did you expect? An examination of career-related support and social support among mentors and protégés. *Journal of Management*, 26(4), 611-632.
- Zachary, L. J. (2000). *The Mentor's Guide – Facilitating Effective Learning Relationships*. San Francisco, CA: Jossey-Bass.

Zachary, L .J. (2012). *The Mentor's Guide – Facilitating Effective Learning Relationships* (2<sup>nd</sup> ed.). San Francisco, CA : Jossey-Bass.

Zey, M. G. (1984). *The mentor connection*. Homewood, USA: Jones-Irwin.

## **APPENDICES**

**Appendix I – A formal Mentoring and Learning Theoretical Framework**

**Appendix II – A summary of the NHS mentees and mentors**

**Appendix III - A summary of the CEPF mentees and mentors**

**Appendix IV - A summary of the NEPF mentees and mentors attendance at Focus groups**

**Appendix V – Comparing the three case study organisations; their context and approach**

**Appendix VI - Core Interview Questions for both mentees and mentors**

**Appendix VII - Ethical Approval from the University, the NHS, the CEPF and the NEPF**

**Appendix VIII - Example Participant Information Sheet & Consent Form (CEPF study)**

**Appendix IX – A selection of NHS mentee and mentor quotations about learning**

**Appendix X – A summary of the NHS interview findings about learning over time**

**Appendix XI – A selection of NHS mentee and mentor quotations about moderating factors**

**Appendix XII – A summary of the CEPF interview findings about learning over time**

**Appendix XIII – A selection of NEPF mentee and mentor quotations about learning**

**Appendix XIV – A selection of NEPF mentee/mentor quotations about moderating factors**



## APPENDIX I - A Formal Mentoring and Learning Theoretical Framework - showing key variables and potential links/relationships with previous research

### INPUTS (aspects that the relationship starts with)

#### MENTOR CHARACTERISTICS/MENTEE CHARACTERISTICS

INDIVIDUAL VARIABLES: Gender/Learning styles/Motivation to learn/Motivation to support learning/Education/Prior experience/Career experience/Current career stage// Expectations/Personality/Proactivity/Clarity of personal identity/personal awareness

Values, belief systems, attitudes

### MODERATORS (factors that influence + or - )

Program Antecedents: Selecting participants/Matching/ Orientation of training/Frequency of meeting guidelines/Goal setting/Prog. objectives/Alignment of prog. & organisational mission/Effective and ongoing communication/Training guidelines/Paperwork/Degree of ongoing support

Organisational context: Culture (Kochan et al. 2015)/Top level support for mentoring programme/Broader developmental networks & opportunities (degree of exposure – opportunities to try out learning)/Team emphasis/Open communication/Open physical environment/Cross-functional work teams/Layered, flattened hierarchy/HRD Strategy & Practice/Reward systems/Confidentiality and trust/Other social networks (number and strength of)/Social setting/Lack of priority/Lack of time for relationship/Organisational changes/distance, remote pairings/HR challenges/Environmental variables; STEEPLE

Hegstad & Wentling (2005); Wanberg et al (2003)

RESEARCH QUESTIONS 3 & 4

### THE MENTORING RELATIONSHIP

(what happens during = the learning process)

DYAD CHARACTERISTICS/INTERACTION: Intimacy/Interpersonal perception/Conflict/Complimentary nature of interactions e.g. learning goal orientation/Attitudes, values & beliefs/Shared sense of meaning/Friendship/Commitment/ Motivation levels / Mentoring styles/Trust/Willingness to take responsibility/ empowerment

Change in mentor/mentee behaviours/changing impact

### PHASES OVER TIME

RESEARCH QUESTIONS 2 & 4

Initiation, cultivation, separation, redefinition (Kram, 1988)

Beginning (rapport/direction setting), middle (progress), end (moving on) (MacLennan, 1999; Clutterbuck & Lane, 2004)

Preparing, negotiating, enabling, coming to closure (Zachary, 2012)

### PROCESSES

Mentors share experiences & views/Mentors share info from higher level discussions/Mentors discuss politics/Reflection by mentees (4 windows – Hale 2000)/Observation & imitation (Brown, 1976)/Explanation (advice/info)/Interaction (Hezlett, 2005)/Social learning/observation of role models (Kram ,1988; Barbulescu, 2005)

Support & challenge (Connor & Pokora, 2007; Daloz, 2012)/ Critical reflection/Transformative learning (Mezirow, 1991)/ Experiential learning (Kolb, 1984)

### OUTCOMES (results = the learning product)

Personal/professional. Intrinsic/extrinsic. Positive/negative

Functions: Psychosocial & Career (Kram, 1988)

MENTEE & MENTOR (levels: Kirkpatrick, 1959/1996)

Reaction level: Satisfaction with each other (expectations met/not met?)/Satisfaction with mentoring prog./Satisfaction with job & organisation/Satisfaction with career/life?

Learning/Immediate level (actual learning): Cognitive learning/Skill-based learning/Affective learning/Social

Behaviour/Intermediate level (application/transfer of learning): Increased responsibility for learning/Increased responsibility in the job/Professional development desire/Promotions/Compensation

Results/ROI/Ulimate levels:

Organisational success (Owen, 2011)/Commitment/ Engagement/Retention/Loyalty/Org. communication (Hezlett & Gibson, 2005; Garvey, 2014)/Managerial succession/identification of talent//ship devt/Institutional memory/Organisational learning/Productivity/Performance/Managing organisational culture (Hezlett & Gibson, 2005)/ Perceived justice/Improved morale/Diversity awareness

NEGATIVE AFFECTS (Kalbfleisch, 1997; Eby et al. 2000)

RESEARCH QUESTIONS 1 & 2



## APPENDIX II – A summary of NHS mentees and mentors

Mentees/Mentors	Male/Female	Job role	Number of interviews contributed to	Attended focus groups 1 and/or 2?
<b>Mentees</b>				
Mentee 1	Female	Clinical	4	N/A
Mentee 2	Female	Clinical	4	N/A
Mentee 3	Male	Non-clinical	4	N/A
Mentee 4	Female	Clinical	4	N/A
Mentee 5	Female	Non-clinical	4	N/A
<b>Mentors</b>				
Mentor 1	Female	Non-clinical	4	1, 2
Mentor 2	Female	Clinical	4	1, 2
Mentor 3	Male	Non-clinical	2	1
Mentor 4	Female	Clinical	4	1, 2
Mentor 5	Male	Non-clinical	4	1

Note: Mentee 1 was matched with mentor 1, and so on.

### APPENDIX III – A summary of CEPF mentees and mentors

Mentees/Mentors	Job role (Police Officer/Police Staff)	Contributed to interviews (1, 2, 3 and/or 4)	Contributed to focus groups (1 and/or 2)
<b>Mentees</b>			
Mentee 1	Police Officer	YES - 1	NO
Mentee 2	Police Officer	YES - 1	YES - 1
Mentee 3	Police Officer	YES – 1, 3, 4	NO
Mentee 4	Police Staff	YES – 1, 4	YES - 1
Mentee 5	Police Staff	YES - 4	NO
Mentee 6	Police Officer	YES - 2	YES - 1
Mentee 7	Police Staff	YES - 1	NO
Mentee 8	Police Officer	YES - 4	NO
Mentee 9	Police Staff	YES – 1, 2, 4	YES - 2
Mentee 10	Police Officer	YES - 1	YES - 1
Mentee 11	Police Officer	YES – 2, 3	NO
Mentee 12	Police Staff	YES - 1	NO
Mentee 13	Police Staff	NO	YES - 1
Mentee 14	Police Staff	NO	YES - 2
Mentee 15	Police Officer	YES – 3, 4	YES – 1, 2
Mentee 16	Police Staff	YES – 2, 3	YES - 2
Mentee 17	Police Staff	YES – 1, 3	NO
Mentee 18	Police Officer	YES - 1	NO
Mentee 19	Police Staff	YES – 1	NO
Mentee 20	Police Staff	YES – 2, 3	YES - 1
Mentee 21	Police Staff	YES – 3, 4	YES - 2
Mentee 22	Police Officer	YES - 1	NO
Mentee 23	Police Staff	YES - 1	NO
<b>Mentors</b>			
Mentor 1	Police Officer	NO	YES - 1
Mentor 2	Police Officer	YES – 1, 2, 4	YES - 2
Mentor 3	Police Staff	YES – 1, 3, 4	YES - 1
Mentor 4	Police Staff	YES - 1	YES - 1
Mentor 5	Police Staff	YES – 1, 2, 4	YES – 1, 2
Mentor 6	Police Staff	YES – 1, 2, 3	YES - 1
Mentor 7	Police Staff	YES – 1, 2	YES - 1
Mentor 8	Police Officer	YES - 3	NO
Mentor 9	Police Officer	YES - 1	NO
Mentor 10	Police Staff	YES – 1, 2, 3, 4	YES - 1
Mentor 11	Police Officer	YES - 2	NO
Mentor 12	Police Officer	YES - 3	NO
Mentor 13	Police Staff	YES – 1, 2	YES - 1
Mentor 14	Police Staff	YES – 1, 2, 3, 4	YES - 1
Mentor 15	Police Officer	YES – 3, 4	NO
Mentor 16	Police Staff	YES - 2	NO
Mentor 17	Police Staff	YES – 1, 4	NO
Mentor 18	Police Staff	YES – 3, 4	YES – 1, 2
Mentor 19	Police Staff	NO	YES – 1, 2

Note: The male/female split was not included as all were women.

**APPENDIX IV – A summary of NEPF mentees and mentors attendance at Focus Groups**

<b>Cohort group</b>	<b>Mentees/Mentors</b>	<b>Attendance at Focus group 1</b>	<b>Attendance at Focus group 2</b>	<b>Attendance at Focus group 3</b>
1	Mentees: 18 Mentors: 12	Mentees: 17 Mentors: 10	Mentees: 18 Mentors: 10	Mentees: 16 Mentors: 8
2	Mentees: 12 Mentors: 10	Mentees: 9 Mentors: 7	Mentees: 8 Mentors: 5	Mentees: 9 Mentors: 6
3	Mentees: 10 Mentors: 10	Mentees: 9 Mentors: 9	Mentees: 10 Mentors: 4	Mentees: 10 Mentors: 8
4	Mentees: 10 Mentors: 10	Mentees: 7 Mentors: 5	Mentees: 6 Mentors: 4	Mentees: 7 Mentors: 6

# **APPENDIX V - Comparing the three case study organisations; their context and approach to mentoring**

Organisation/criteria	NHS	CEPF	NEPF
<b>CONTEXT</b>			
Location	Central England	Central England	North England
Mission statement	Putting patients first	To reduce crime and disorder and make our communities feel safer	Keeping our communities safe and reassured
Organisational challenges	Budget cuts Restructuring Low morale High workload Constant change	Budget cuts Restructuring Low morale High workload Large scale change programme	Less pressure re budget cuts Some restructuring Med/high morale Manageable workload Pockets of change/small scale
Senior leadership style	Change in top leadership recently Previously autocratic/now less	Top leadership team been there some time Autocratic/command and control	New top leadership team Less autocratic/but still command and control
Learning and Development	Proactive L&D Department New L&D initiatives being launched	Reactive L&D Department Limited L&D activity beyond the job	Gaps in L&D Department Limited L&D activity within the job
Current mentoring and coaching presence	Mentorship in Nursing arena Some Executive Coaching	Mentors appointed to those newly promoted (but not trained/no follow up)	Mentors appointed to those newly promoted (but not trained/no follow up)
<b>APPROACH TO THE 3 NEW MENTORING PROGRAMMES STUDIED</b>			
Reason for mentoring programmes	Support for Management qualification	Support for aspiring women	Support for talented employees
Mentor applications	Declared interest to L&D Department All accepted	Declared interest to L&D Department All accepted	Mentor completed form ACC checked applications and rejected some
Mentee applications	Declared interest to L&D Department All accepted No waiting list	Declared interest to L&D Department All accepted No waiting list	Declared interest to L&D Dept. Some referred back to Manager Large waiting list
Mentor training	3 x ½ day sessions with External company, with gaps between for reflection	2 x 1 day sessions with External person*, with 2 week gap between for reflection	2 x 1 day sessions with External person, with 2 week gap between for reflection
Key mentoring models	GROW, CLEAR, OSKAR	GROW, CLEAR, OSKAR	GROW, CLEAR, OSKAR
Code of Practice adhered to	ILM	EMCC	EMCC
Mentee expectation session (pre-mentoring)	Run by External person (1 hour)	Run by External person (1/2 day)	Run by External person (1/2 day)
Matching	Done by L&D Department	Done by L&D Department	Done by L&D Department
Criteria for matching	Mentee chose top 3 from intranet site and then chemistry meeting took place (linked to aspiration/location)	Mentees matched by aspiration and location	Mentees matched across Police Officer and Police Staff roles, on purpose (no-one in same area/role)
Number of mentoring pairs	No-one had more than 1 mentee	Some mentors had 2 or 3 mentees	Some mentors had 2 or 3 mentees
Supervision sessions	2 short x 1 hour group sessions mentors only	3 x 2 ½ hour sessions for mentees and mentors separately	3 x 2 ½ hour sessions for mentees and mentors separately

\*External person = PhD Researcher Note: – Shaded areas suggest similarity between the cases

## **APPENDIX VI – Core Interview Questions for both mentees and mentors**

- How would you describe your mentoring relationship so far?
- What have been your most effective/least effective mentoring experiences?
- What do you think you are learning, from being involved in mentoring?
- What do you think your mentee/mentor is learning from being involved?
- How do you think you and your mentee/mentor is learning this?
- What do you and your mentee/mentor do that helps/hinders your learning?
- What other factors enable or inhibit your learning whilst mentoring?
- How similar or different are you to your mentee/mentor and how does this affect your mentoring relationship? \*
- What do you feel has changed since you started being involved in mentoring?  
i.e. for you, your mentee/mentor, within the relationship, your job?

\*Added after the NHS study

## **APPENDIX VII – Ethical Approval from the University, the NHS, the CEPF and the NEPF**



Deans Professor Don Wilson  
BA KCE MBA PGD MSc MEd

Compton Park Campus  
Compton Road W-1  
Wolverhampton WV3 9DL  
United Kingdom

Telephone: (01902) 325000  
Fax: (01902) 321701  
International Code: (+44 1902)  
Internet: [www.unwolver.ac.uk](http://www.unwolver.ac.uk)

1st March, 2010

Mrs Jenni Jones

Dear Jenni,

**Re:- Application for Ethical Approval.**

Please find below the extract from the minutes of the February meeting of the School Research Committee following the Committee's consideration of your application for ethical approval.

**Decision:-** ethical approval can be granted subject to the following conditions:-

- The issue of the storage of data needs to be extended to cover electronic data. Detailed guidelines on electronic data storage is available from Jeanette Young
- The NHS provided a letter approving the study and a similar letter should also be obtained (and a copy provided to the SRC) from the Police before the research there commences.

Yours sincerely

  
Prof Mike Haynes  
University of Wolverhampton Business School

Cc Prof B. Hamlin



Vice-Chancellor  
Professor Caroline Gippin AM FRCGS FRSA



For the Attention of Jenni Jones  
Wolverhampton University  
(Telford Campus)

Dear Jenni

This letters confirms that, for the purposes of your research involvement with our Mentoring Pilot Programme, ethical approval from this Trust is not required. This is because your work is based purely on the development and training of managers and there is no patient contact or involvement at any stage.

I am aware that all your questions and activities carried out with the group of managers involved have first been agreed with our Senior Management Development Advisor,

Should there be any questions from the University about the above, please contact at the above address or via the above telephone number (ext 4105)

Yours sincerely

Head of Development & Training

Trust web site: [www.](http://www.)





Jenni Jones,  
Office SB111  
University of Wolverhampton  
Telford Campus  
Priorslee, Telford  
TF2 9NT



Friday 19<sup>th</sup> March, 2010

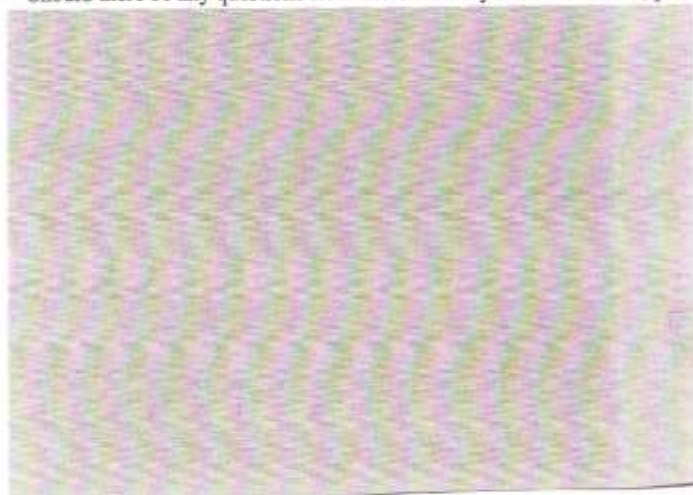
**Reference: Ethical Approval Exemption**

Dear Jenni,

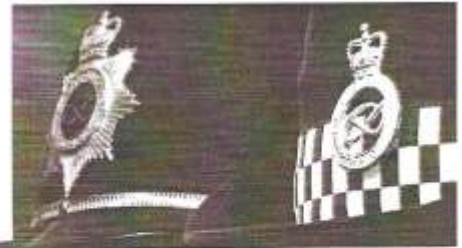
This letter confirms that, for the purposes of your research involvement with our Mentoring Pilot Programme, ethical approval from [REDACTED] Police is not required. This is because your work is based purely on the development and training of [REDACTED] Police employees and there is no contact with members of the public or involvement at any stage.

I am aware that all of your questions and activities are carried out with the employees participating in the programme have first been jointly agreed with [REDACTED]

Should there be any questions from the University about the above, please contact [REDACTED]



INVESTOR IN PEOPLE



Jenni Jones  
Senior Lecturer  
HR & Leadership  
University of Wolverhampton Business  
School  
MN Building (Office MN220)  
Nursery Street  
Wolverhampton  
WV1 1AD

Contact:  
Voicebank:

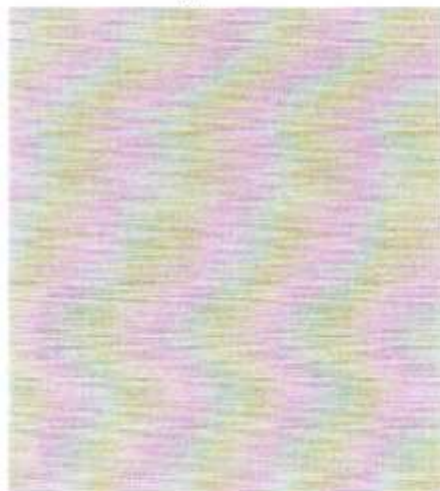
Your ref: Ethical Approval Exemption  
Date: 25 March 2014

Dear Jenni,

This letter confirms that for the purposes of your research, you are provided permission by [redacted] to use anonymised feedback information that you have collated from the [redacted] Programme. This has been granted on the understanding that you treat the information collated as per your "consent letter for [redacted] Mentors/Mentees".

All Mentors and Mentees have had the opportunity to object to this, having been provided with the information you have supplied and I have not received any objection.

Yours sincerely,



www. [redacted]



 **CRIMESTOPPERS**  
**0800 555 111**  
ask anonymously with freedom and care  
Crimestoppers is an independent charity

**APPENDIX VIII – Example Participant Information Sheet & Consent Form (CEPF study)****An investigation into how mentees and mentors learn and grow, within a mentoring relationship.**

Researcher: Jenni Jones

***The Project***

You are being invited to take part in some research which investigates your expectations of mentoring and what and how you learn within a mentoring relationship. This research is being undertaken by Jenni Jones (Senior Lecturer) from the University of Wolverhampton in conjunction with XX and XX (CEPF).

It is important for you to understand why the research is being done and what it will involve. Please take time to read the following information. If there is anything that is not clear or if you would like more information about this study, please do not hesitate to contact Jenni Jones on [jenni.jones@wlv.ac.uk](mailto:jenni.jones@wlv.ac.uk)

***What is mentoring?***

Mentoring is a process that aims to support an individual's development through a supportive learning relationship. Mentoring helps an individual make work based transitions and to realise their true potential. It is a method whereby an organisation can provide a safe and confidential environment for staff to explore their career aspirations and their professional development.

***What is the purpose of this study?***

The aim of the XX pilot mentoring programme within CEPF is to support the retention and progression of females within the service. Mentoring will help you gain an insight into the knowledge and skills you will need to progress within the organisation, to realise your potential (in terms of your continuous personal and professional development), and ultimately to progress your career.

Therefore, this research aims to collate information on both mentors and mentees expectations of the mentoring relationship, to investigate what and how learning occurs within the relationship and also to evaluate the outcomes of the relationship.

***Why have I been chosen?***

As you are a mentor/mentee as part of this pilot scheme and you will be involved in mentoring relationships, your opinions about mentoring are important. This research will help us better understand your beliefs and attitudes towards mentoring, what you are

learning and the tangible benefits of such a process. We can then use this information to ensure that mentoring continues to be a productive and supportive relationship within CEPF.

### ***How will the research take place?***

A brief pre-mentoring questionnaire will be distributed at the start of this research (today) which helps us to understand what you hope to get out of the mentoring relationship. This questionnaire will be re-distributed to you at the end of the mentoring relationship too, so we can see if you have achieved what you hoped to, through mentoring.

Following this, brief discussions (for approx. 20-30 minutes) will be held individually with mentors and mentees about your/their learning throughout the relationship (we anticipate that this will be approximately once every 4-6 weeks, once mentoring has started, and will be arranged at your convenience, in your workplace) and should mean that we meet approximately 5-6 times maximum. This will help show what learning is happening and how it may be applied/transferred into the workplace.

You will also be invited to 'Supervision-type' sessions/Open Forum discussions with other mentors and/or mentees to share your views and experiences. These will be every 2-3 months.

It may also be helpful to look at any supporting documentation used within your mentoring relationships i.e. personal development plans, but this will only be provided with your permission.

It would be helpful to meet some time after your mentoring relationship has ended (approx. 3 months afterwards) to see how you continue to apply what you may have learnt.

You have every right to withdraw from this research at any point.

### ***Will it be confidential?***

Your name, position or your department will not appear anywhere in any publications and if your comments are used, these will only have a code and no identifying information about you. Some of the information collected in this study may be published in the public domain but you will not be identifiable within the publication.

### ***What do I have to do?***

Once you have completed the pre-mentoring questionnaire and you have had your first meeting with your mentor/mentee, then it would be helpful to let Jenni Jones know ([jenni.jones@wlv.ac.uk](mailto:jenni.jones@wlv.ac.uk)) so she can arrange a day/time to meet up with you to discuss how your mentoring relationship is progressing and what/how you are learning.

### ***What are the possible benefits of taking part?***

By taking part in this research, you can help inform the strategy for developing mentoring further to meet the needs of similar employees within the CEPF. By understanding how you perceive mentoring, how you learn within mentoring and what the outcomes/benefits can be, we can develop a strategy to ensure the benefits of mentoring are more widely communicated and made more widely available within the service.

### ***How will the information be kept?***

All data collected will be stored in a locked cabinet within the University of Wolverhampton. Any typed notes will be saved onto either a personal computer or a work computer within password protected files. Any data kept on portable devices (e.g. memory sticks or tape recorders) will be password protected and kept within a locked cabinet. All the data will be kept for 5 years after which it will be shredded or deleted.

### ***What will happen to the results of the research study?***

An overview of the results will be made available to XX and XX (CEPF) and to the University of Wolverhampton through Jenni Jones's PhD studies.

But as a reminder, your name, position or your department will not appear anywhere in any publications and if your comments are used, these will only have a code and no identifying information about you.

### ***Contact for further information***

For further information or if you wish to have clarification on any aspect of this research, then please contact Jenni Jones on [jenni.jones@wlv.ac.uk](mailto:jenni.jones@wlv.ac.uk)

**Thank you for taking the time to read this information**

---

**CONSENT FORM: An investigation into how mentees and mentors learn and grow, within a mentoring relationship.**

**Researcher: Jenni Jones    Institution: University of Wolverhampton Business School**

I \_\_\_\_\_ am happy to take part in this study:

- I have read and fully understand the information that has been provided
- I understand that all information collected is confidential
- I am aware that the information collected in this study may be published in the public domain. If this should occur, I understand that I will not be identifiable within the publication

Signature \_\_\_\_\_ Date \_\_\_\_\_

**YOUR CONTACT DETAILS** (work tel. no. & email please) \_\_\_\_\_

## APPENDIX IX

### A SELECTION OF NHS MENTEE AND MENTOR QUOTATIONS ABOUT LEARNING

In this Appendix, a selection of NHS mentee and mentor responses will be shared against each learning domain, starting with cognitive learning.

#### Cognitive learning.

##### **Mentees**

All five mentees commented in all 20 interviews (100%) within the cognitive domain. The key themes from mentees responses were either in relation to practical study skills type support that they had received and/or the insights gained into the wider organisation.

One mentee discussed how their mentor shared their knowledge about prioritising:

*“My mentor gave advice about being organised. She gave me ideas on how to gather literature together and ideas on referencing” (Mentee 1/Interview 1).*

Another mentee mentioned they received some direct practical advice:

*“From a practical point of view he helped me set my PC up. I got a laptop, he said, “If you’re going to do the course, you need to get yourself a decent PC and you need to get Microsoft Office 2007, because that’s got a referencing part on it that automatically references your work....And that’s been such a massive help” (Mentee 3/Interview 4).*

And another mentee mentioned additional practical study advice:

*“I think that the other thing is I’m more aware of journals and books and things like that, that are out there, to go and read if I need some advice of some sort. If I need to learn about something I know where they are now, whereas I probably wasn’t aware of them before” (Mentee 2/Interview 4).*

As the NHS mentoring programme was set up to support those employees studying for a qualification, and the mentors had previously studied or were still studying the same qualification, it is not surprising that they shared their knowledge about how to study. However, this mentee had an expectation about study support that was not met by her mentor:

*“The only thing that would have been helpful if he would have helped with the structure of the assignments...He could have shared what he does himself with me but he doesn’t feel confident himself....he hasn’t got the knowledge of academic writing to help me with my assignments” (Mentee 5/Interview 2).*

As demonstrated by this quote, mentors did not just share knowledge about studying but also their organisational knowledge and experience too. One mentee said:

*“Mentoring is giving me a perspective outside of my speciality but from someone else in the Trust. It’s helped me think about the bigger picture. You kind of get engrossed in your one specialist area, and talking to somebody who’s outside of your area, makes you think of other parts of the hospital... So if my line manager says you need to go to procurement about something, then I’m not totally in the dark” (Mentee 4/Interview 3).*

Other indicative examples of cognitive learning through knowledge shared by mentors were as follows:

*“I’m learning from my mentors experience on how to deal with some of my staff issues” (Mentee 2/Interview 3).*

*“She makes me aware that you can’t know everything, so don’t be afraid to ask”*  
(Mentee 4/Interview 3).

In short, mentees declared that as a result of the mentoring received they had gained an increased knowledge of how best to study towards their qualification and of the wider organisation.

## **Mentors**

All five mentors commented in this domain, within over two thirds of the mentor interviews (77.78%). The key themes were around mentors getting an increased clarity about the expectations of the qualification that the mentee was studying, a wider insight into different aspects of the organisation, and learning how best to mentor their mentees.

Some examples of mentors learning about these aspects are as follows:

*“I’m learning about the processes. I needed to find out where my mentee needed to hand in their first assignment. Made phone calls. Took 45 minutes to find out needed to hand it in a few yards away!”* (Mentor 3/Interview 1).

*“I’m not clinically based, I’m more technical, so I’ve got a different outlook on things”*  
(Mentor 2/Interview 4).

*“I’m getting an insight into another part of the organisation that not that aware of, which may help in a future role”* (Mentor 4/Interview 3).

This mentor went on to say in Interview 4:

*“I got to understand a lot more about an area of the organisation I didn’t know much about... the move of the XX unit has sounded quite torturous at times. Really interesting to hear that from the point of view of the project manager and my linking in with that in terms of their training needs assessments”* (Mentor 4/Interview 4).



Mentors also commented on how they had improved their knowledge about mentoring and their ability to mentor, and /or how they had applied this this learning outside of the mentoring relationship. For example:

*“I have realised that I tend to do mentoring without realising it, with your colleagues and with your children and your family; on reflection have learnt from other colleagues this way...In this environment, it’s really good, you can help people and learn from other’s environments as well” (Mentor 2/Interview 1).*

*“Mentoring is a boost me as well. I’ve been reading a lot more around the coaching and mentoring to help with my ongoing progression as well. Feel like I am taking it back to work...I do think it helps within a working environment, in terms of how you deal with other colleagues and those in the department” (Mentor 1/Interview 2).*

This same mentor mentioned in a later interview:

*“I now know where my limits are” (Mentor 1/Interview 4).*

In short, mentors revealed that as a result of their engagement in a mentoring relationship they had gained an increased knowledge of the study related aspects of the qualification that the mentee (and themselves) were studying, of the wider organisation, and also greater self-awareness of their respective mentoring skills.

### **Skill-based learning.**

#### **Mentees**

All five mentees mentioned they had learnt some new skills but not in all interviews (only in 45% of mentee interviews). For mentees, there was a clear focus on study skills with some mention of reflection skills, organisational skills and developing work-life balance skills to cope, as can be seen in the following indicative quotes:

*“We talked about why I want to do the course...Had some difficulty with this reflective assignment...I’ve talked about this with my mentor. I am now thinking and reflecting before I answer something” (Mentee 1/Interview 1).*

*“I’ve learnt I’m more organised than I thought I was...So that’s good and what I’ve learnt about myself, is that I can organise myself and can almost stick to time. I thought I wasn’t very organised at all. I thought I was like a tossed salad! It was one of the things I thought I’d find a little challenging (Mentee 5/Interview 3).*

*“It’s helping me organise my studies around my life. It’s giving me advice on how to balance things” (Mentee 2/Interview 1).*

Raised awareness of personal behaviour in meetings and the development of enhanced listening skills were other examples of skills based learning by mentees, as illustrated below:

*“I’m learning how I’m behaving in meetings as well. Sometimes I’m so keen to get across what I want to say, I don’t actually listen to what people are saying to me...Because I think so often, you’ve got some pertinent points you want to get across, you don’t always hear what they’ve said” (Mentee 4/Interview 4).*

In short, mentees revealed that they had learned and developed skills that had been both helpful for their studies and transferable into their work roles too.

## **Mentors**

All five mentors mentioned they had learnt from new skills but not in all interviews (in 72.22% of mentor interviews). For mentors the key skill-based learning themes mentioned were developing their questioning, listening and assertiveness skills, together with the opportunity to refresh their skills of making effective use of their ‘mentoring toolkit’ generally.

Questioning and listening skills, for mentors, were the most often mentioned skills. For example, two mentors said that early on:

*“I’m learning when to stop talking and when to carry on. Learning how to ask questions that unlock some different thinking. Asking the right questions” (Mentor 5/Interview 1).*

*“Also some personal learning too; felt my questioning skills were rusty. Conscious that this is difficult but getting better at it” (Mentor 4/Interview 1).*

This mentor was learning by being questioned in return:

*“I’m learning to develop a bit more patience, when being questioned about why I am doing it like that” (Mentor 3/Interview 1).*

And another mentor in a later interview (interview 3) said:

*“Still learning about listening; listening constructively. Doing two things together, which is hard enough as your mind does wander off on other things, but you’re listening and then you have to listen at another level. What is she actually saying and what can I feedback?” (Mentor 1/Interview 3).*

In her interview 2, the same mentor declared to the researcher that she had a bad habit which had been affecting her questioning skills:

*“I’ve learnt I’ve got an extremely bad habit and I know it’s my mother’s! When someone says something, I then try and reflect it back with an example of my own, rather than just go with the individual...I think without mentoring, I would have gotten to it at some point, but with mentoring I have got to it more quickly” (Mentor 1/Interview 2).*

Mentor 2 mentioned her increased ability to be more assertive now:

*“I find I’m more positive in outlook and I’m a bit more forceful. I used to be a lot more timid than I am now. I do find I stand up a bit stronger now, even to my manager on the phone because he’s got this way about him, he just talks over people all the time... I feel I’ve got more skills now to be able to deal with a lot of the issues I come across” (Mentor 2/Interview 4).*

In addition to new skills, one mentor suggested that she had not only learnt new skills but she had refreshed some old ones too, as indicated by the responses of Mentor 1:

*“In terms of my own development, I got an awful lot out of it. It was a chance for me to review my communication skills. Making sure that I had control over my questions and what I call my communications toolkit...Particularly as I actually discovered that I had slightly less control than I’d hoped at that stage. It was a lack of practice I think, so it was a really good opportunity for me to practise the summarising, the stating, the testing, the challenging, all those sort of skills” (Mentor 1/Interview 4).*

In short, these responses revealed that mentors are building on already established mentoring skills and developing new skills too.

### **Affective-related learning.**

#### **Mentees**

Four out of five mentees mentioned affective-related learning within 65% of their interviews. One mentee did not mention any affective-related learning at all and so this accounted for 20% of the interviews where it was not mentioned. For the other four mentees, key themes included improved confidence, better focus, increased self-awareness, increased positivity and recognition of their personal achievements. Mentee 4 discussed an emotional start with her mentor:

*“The first day I met her, I cried twice in the session but now she says she can see an improvement in me. She can see me getting a bit more confident and I’m possibly, possibly enjoying it a bit more. She’s right; I don’t cry as often. I realise that now it’s only a job and you can only do what you can do and if it’s not good enough for people, then tough... There are some bad managers who probably wouldn’t do the half of it, so I can only do the best I can” (Mentee 4/Interview 3).*

She went on to say in the following interview:

*“Mentoring has made a huge difference. I’m not go away kicking myself, thinking ‘bl\*\*dy hell, why didn’t I think of that?’ when actually I can’t think of everything”*  
(Mentee 4/Interview 4).

Increasing self-confidence was a core theme from all four mentees, who commented in this domain. Mentee 1 said:

*“My mentor says I’ve changed in confidence tremendously, in the past 3 or 4 months and I’d agree with that. (Would you have noticed that if you’re mentor hasn’t pointed that out?) Probably not. I do feel that I’m doing things differently in work, in the sense that I’m making some decisions and then I’m telling my Director when I’ve actually made them, which I wouldn’t have done a year ago, not because I didn’t want to make the decision but I didn’t have the confidence to make the decision....My mentor said I seem to have an air of confidence around me”* (Mentee 1/Interview 2).

It is interesting to note that the quotes from mentee 1 and mentee 4 in this affective-related section mention the mentors opinion about their increased confidence (highlighted with the underlining), and may not have been the direct view of the mentees themselves.

In fact, when mentees talked about their own confidence, they did not always sound too confident:

*“I’m probably more confident. I should say I am more confident, not probably more confident. No I am confident in what I’m doing. I’ve found a system of work, that works for me... so hopefully that’s not going to change”* (Mentee 3/Interview 3).

Not all mentee responses were initially positive about confidence related issues, with mentee 5, in reaction to her initial study results, saying:

*“I thought to myself, oh my god I’m rubbish in my job.... I felt I was crap at work and at College. I had some plumbing waiting for a plumber to do at home, so I went home and did it myself...I thought if all else failed I could become a plumber. I took the feedback the wrong way really.” (Mentee 5/Interview 2).*

Two interviews later, the same mentee said:

*“It (mentoring) has actually made me more confident in how I deal with people and approach people” (Mentee 5/Interview 4).*

In short, mentees responses within the affective-related learning domain most commonly focussed on building their inner confidence and building their self-esteem.

## **Mentors**

Four out of five mentors mentioned affective-related learning within 83.33% of the mentor interviews. One mentor did not mention any affective-related learning at all and so this accounted for 11% of the interviews, as this was the mentor who was only able to attend two out of the four interviews. For the other four mentors, the key themes were increased confidence, positivity and patience with others.

Here are some examples of where mentoring had given mentors an increased self-awareness which had encouraged them to reflect more on the impact of their style:

*“I’ve been accused of being a maverick....sometimes if I can’t see the practicalities I can be a bit dismissive of it and push it to one side... Like I can pooh-pooh reflective practice but looking into mentoring, has made me stop and think about it a bit more seriously...I’m a bit more patient now” (Mentor 4/Interview 3).*

*“I feel a lot more confident in speaking to people in my own team. I feel that I’m a lot more positive with them as I’m a lot more confident now... I feel more positive too and feel I can take it to the next level with other people too” (Mentor 3/Interview 2).*

*“I’ve learned you’ve got to be firm and straight with people. I have gained this confidence from the feedback I’ve been getting (in mentoring) and I’ve been reading the literature behind it...I do believe I’ve gained a lot more confidence in my ability to do my own job and to be able to pass on information to other people as well. I feel a lot more positive and feel positive in the way that I talk to my Manager as well...I have a stronger opinion throughout the team as well” (Mentor 2/Interview 3).*

Mentor 1 reflected on how mentoring had helped her feel more positive towards her own postgraduate study:

*“I actually feel very positive about my own ability to sustain and grow in this area and improve my skills. I feel very positive about that and I think it’s a direct result of the mentoring programme supporting the work that I’d initially done in the post grad certificate. So it kind of reinforces” (Mentor 1/Interview 4).*

In short, mentors affective-related learning focussed mainly on building their self-awareness and their confidence to mentor, which in turn they perceived was making a difference within their job.

### **Social networks.**

#### **Mentees**

Although this was the area with the least response from mentees (13.01% of all responses) and mentioned in less than half of the interviews (45%), mentees mentioned there was some learning from the mentors contacts and networks. Three out of the five mentees mentioned that mentors had encouraged them to talk to others that they might not have before and made direct contact with those from different disciplines inside work, with the mentees ultimately learning for themselves where to go when they need more direction. For example:

*“In the office where she works, she’s got a lot of contacts with different departments and when I had to do the action plan, she said why don’t you talk to X over there, as she does loads of those action plans, so I rang X. So that was quite good really...It’s the contacts really which is quite useful” (Mentee 2/Interview 2).*

*“My mentor told me about what our Medical Director had done in his MA dissertation and I thought, I’m working with him and I’ll ask him about that. I wouldn’t have known that otherwise...If I haven’t have said what I wanted to do to my mentor, I would never have known that” (Mentee 1/Interview 2).*

Although the domain of least response from mentees, mentors contacts were clearly supporting mentees learning.

## **Mentors**

Although the domain with the least responses for mentors (10.16% of all responses) and mentioned in less than half of the interviews (44.44%), three out of the five mentors mentioned there was some learning from the mentees contacts and networks. They did not state they had directly learnt any new contacts but they did perceive they had gained clearer insights into other areas of the business which may helpful for future connections. For example:

*“I know a lot more about their department than I ever would have known before. I also have learnt some things about working with other departments, which are good to know in my own job, for the future” (Mentor 4/Interview 3).*

*“(In order to help my mentee) I had to explore different areas and I found that helpful so I shared that with her. Sharing my networks more or less” (Mentor 2/Interview 3).*

In short, although the domain of least responses from mentors, some mentors had made connections with other areas of the organisation which could potentially open up the dialogue for future connections.



## APPENDIX X: A SUMMARY OF THE NHS INTERVIEW FINDINGS ABOUT LEARNING OVER TIME

### MENTEES

Learning domains	What mentees perceived they were learning (up to interview 1)	What mentees perceived they were learning (up to interview 2)	What mentees perceived they were learning (up to interview 3)	What mentees perceived they learnt (up to interview 4)
<b>Cognitive</b>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Clarity around assignments</li> <li>• Help with difficult issues</li> <li>• Found out about leadership course</li> <li>• What is coming up on my course</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Practical stuff e.g. how to reference</li> <li>• Job descriptions</li> <li>• Academic language/applying theory to practice</li> <li>• Report writing</li> <li>• Organisational strategy</li> <li>• Now looking at things from a different perspective/higher level</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• How to deal with staff issues</li> <li>• Project management advice</li> <li>• Wider perspective</li> <li>• Info about finance and business planning</li> <li>• Info about marketing</li> <li>• Academic writing style</li> <li>• Developing negotiation skills</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Practical stuff about computers</li> <li>• How to run a meeting</li> <li>• Learnt about the role of a mentor</li> <li>• How others have done things, as they've been through it</li> <li>• Read some books</li> <li>• Given internet sources/ideas</li> </ul>
<b>Skill-based</b>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• How to manage referencing</li> <li>• IT skills</li> <li>• How to be more confident when doing presentations</li> <li>• Recognise skills that have</li> <li>• Learning about self</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Emailing/IT skills</li> <li>• Presentation skills</li> <li>• Doing things differently</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Referencing skills</li> <li>• To approach people rather than email them</li> <li>• Recognising the skills I have</li> <li>• Raised awareness of others perceptions</li> <li>• Building on my reflective practice</li> <li>• Presentation skills</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Project Management skills</li> <li>• Lean thinking skills</li> <li>• Been more assertive with mentor</li> <li>• Learnt to reflect</li> <li>• Learnt a lot about self</li> <li>• Learning how to put observations about myself into practice</li> <li>• More reflective</li> </ul>

				<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Aware of reflection now</li> <li>• More organised than I thought I was</li> </ul>
<b>Affective-related</b>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Not to panic about volume of work (take step by step)</li> <li>• Need to be focussed</li> <li>• Improved confidence</li> <li>• How to balance studies, work and home life</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Increased/improved confidence</li> <li>• Better focus on what I need/want</li> <li>• A sense of achievement</li> <li>• Becoming more aware of learning style</li> <li>• How hard it is to study</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Aware that can't know everything but don't be afraid to ask</li> <li>• Questioning myself; asking myself and other people what they think, is helping to boost my self esteem</li> <li>• Learning about different styles</li> <li>• Feel more positive/less vague</li> <li>• Better work-life balance</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Importance of reflecting</li> <li>• To keep things simple</li> <li>• Learnt about myself</li> <li>• Learning I'm not rubbish at my job</li> <li>• More confidence in what I'm doing</li> <li>• I'm capable of doing it</li> <li>• Learning to question things more</li> </ul>
<b>Social networks</b>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• New contacts with others in the organisation</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• New course colleagues</li> <li>• Mentor sharing their work networks</li> <li>• Mentor shares her many different contacts with me</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Networks and contacts are so important</li> <li>• Talking to people from different disciplines</li> <li>• Pointed me towards other people</li> <li>• Perspective outside of my speciality but from someone else in the Trust</li> <li>• Talking to others that might not have before (inside/outside of NHS)</li> <li>• Have pursued an external mentor</li> <li>• Have pursued new family members</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Who to go to</li> <li>• When lost, can get direction</li> <li>• Mentor has lots of interaction with lots of different areas of the hospital</li> </ul>

## MENTORS

Learning domains	What mentors perceived they were learning (up to interview 1)	What mentors perceived they were learning (up to interview 2)	What mentors perceived they were learning (up to interview 3)	What mentors perceived they learnt (up to interview 4)
<b>Cognitive</b>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>Insights into mentee issues</li> <li>New Uni processes</li> <li>Clarity about the mentor role</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>Increased focus about mentoring</li> <li>Been reading about mentoring</li> <li>Better understanding about role</li> <li>Better understanding of boundaries</li> <li>Giving/receiving feedback</li> <li>Broader outlook</li> <li>Learning about Uni processes</li> <li>How to use the feedback sandwich</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>Know about her department ( I don't need to know but it gives me a broader outlook)</li> <li>Reading literature about mentoring</li> <li>Know about working with the PCT</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>More about that speciality</li> <li>Understanding other areas of the business</li> <li>Experience of a non-needy mentee i.e. how to handle different relationships</li> <li>Different ways of being a mentor</li> </ul>
<b>Skill-based</b>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>How to ask questions that unlock different thinking</li> <li>Asking the right questions</li> <li>Developing rusty questioning skills</li> <li>Learnt to structure advice in my head first (as aware of organisational sensitivities)</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>Raised awareness of sensitivities</li> <li>Improving questioning skills</li> <li>Raised awareness of bad habits</li> <li>Learning about my own style (and impact this may have on my team)</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>Listening constructively; need to listen at another level – what is she actually saying? What can I feed back?</li> <li>Setting the mentoring contract/using formality at the start</li> <li>Refreshing my toolkit/skills</li> <li>Self awareness and how I come across to others</li> <li>Asking self, why I did that? Reflection</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>Listening skills; to reflect it back and not interrupt</li> <li>Listening skills; helping to decipher what they wanted</li> <li>Communication skills i.e. not leading but helping them find their own way</li> <li>Increased self awareness</li> </ul>
<b>Affective-related</b>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>Asking myself questions; why do I do it like that?</li> <li>When to stop talking and when to carry on</li> <li>Learn not to jump in</li> <li>Bit more patience</li> <li>Boost to own confidence when get positive feedback from mentee</li> <li>Need to allot time in my head to</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>Raised confidence as a mentor</li> <li>Reminder when to stop and listen</li> <li>More patience</li> <li>Talking about issues beyond the job</li> <li>Feel more positive</li> <li>Taking own team to the next level too</li> <li>That I come across a bit hyper</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>Reflective practice has made me stop and think</li> <li>Learnt to sit back and take it seriously</li> <li>Learnt to shut up sometimes; not to tell stories about what I used to do</li> <li>Not to jump in/to pause</li> <li>Increased confidence with my own team</li> <li>Lots more positive and take action</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>A lot about my own development</li> <li>A lot more confidence in my ability to do my job</li> <li>Not to shy away from problems</li> <li>Learning how best to respond to the mentee</li> </ul>

	make myself stop and listen		quicker <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Increased confidence</li> <li>• I stand my ground a lot more now</li> </ul>	
<b>Social networks</b>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Insights into other parts of organisation</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Learning about frustrations of new Managers/seeing how others can help</li> <li>• Meeting other mentors through training/Trainer</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Using mentoring techniques with other members of my team</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Help with mentoring own staff here informally</li> </ul>

## APPENDIX XI

### A SELECTION OF NHS MENTEE AND MENTOR QUOTATIONS ABOUT MODERATING FACTORS

In this Appendix, a selection of NHS mentee and mentor responses will be shared against each of the five key moderating factors, starting with Managers.

#### Managers.

##### **Mentees**

In 85% of all mentee interviews (n=17) managers were mentioned, with the majority of responses from mentee interviews (17 out of 27) suggesting that they had a positive influence on their mentoring relationships. In fact, all five mentees mentioned supportive managers but not in all interviews.

Here are some examples of where mentees mentioned their supportive managers:

*“My manager acts as my manager, coach and mentor too. I have discussed the course with my manager. I want him to be aware of what doing and how it all links together, with my job. Also Manager ok about writing assignments at work and supporting this qualification” (Mentee 3/Interview 1).*

*“My Manager is quite supportive. She’s at different site and leaves me to it, as long as I’m doing my job, she doesn’t mind” (Mentee 2/Interview 1).*

*“My Manager is very supportive. I manage my own diary, so as long as I do what I need to do for my job, he doesn’t interfere. He knows that X is my mentor” (Mentee 1/Interview 1).*

*“To be fair, my Manager is supportive, he does ask. He’s already signed the paperwork for me to do the course next year as well” (Mentee 5/Interview 3).*

*“My line manager...he’s quite good as well and I see him on a one-to-one basis every month” (Mentee 4/Interview 4).*

Two mentees mentioned that their managers were supportive yet they were not necessarily directly interested in their mentoring relationships, for example:

*“They didn’t seem interested (in mentoring) at all. I don’t see my line manager every day, but I see her at least once a week, but I know she’s at the other end of the phone or an email if I do need help. When I have had issues she’s been very helpful and supportive towards me” (Mentee 1/Interview 4).*

*“She has been very busy and she mentioned a few months ago that she kind of felt guilty that she hadn’t been asking enough questions and shown enough interest in it. So she felt this was something she needed to be more proactive about and she has done and I talk to her more about it now” (Mentee 2/Interview 3).*

However in eight mentee interviews, managers were reported as being less directly supportive towards their mentees and mentoring. Here are some examples below:

*“My Departmental Boss doesn’t think of other people that come under his wing. In fact I don’t think he’s that aware that I’m doing this course. My mentor put me on this course and obviously my Departmental Manager had to sign to say I could go on it but he’s forgotten about that I’m sure as he’s got so many other things to do” (Mentee 3/Interview 3).*

*“Well, my manager has left and when I asked the next one down from him if there was any support available, they didn’t even know I was on the course...that’s how my manager is as well. I don’t contact them unless there’s a problem really” (Mentee 5/Interview 4).*

*“I wasn’t praised by my new boss at all. He’s very nice, he’s different to XX” (Mentee 1/Interview 4)*

## **Mentors**

Only 22.22% of the mentor interviews discussed the influence of managers (n=4), which is much fewer than the mentees, and for mentors the responses had a much less positive bias (four out of five were negative). They suggested that mentoring was not being seen as a management priority

and so they were having pressure from above which had affected their available mentoring time, as illustrated by the following two quotes:

*“Manager says he’s there but he’s not really” (Mentor 2/Interview 1).*

*“On one occasion we were just looking at diaries to set up a meeting and my manager noticed I’d got mentoring in mine and she went, “Uh huh” (Mentor 5/Interview 4).*

Another mentor discussed the indifference of management commenting:

*“My Manager doesn’t say to me ‘what’s all this in your diary or what’s this mentorship business?’” (Mentor 4/Interview 2).*

### **Time.**

#### **Mentees**

In 80% of the mentee interviews (n=16), the majority of responses (60.61%) made by mentees in relation to time were negative (20 out of 33.)

Workload was the biggest factor, with these mentees saying:

*“Sometimes have to work long days (not happen very often) but sometimes get called in and unable to make mentoring sessions” (Mentee 3/Interview 1).*

*“Unfortunately the winter is my busiest time in the lab... obviously with all the flu and the winter vomiting and everything like that, I’m up to my eyeballs in that... We found the time eventually...It’s hard work, it’s not easy, but glad I did it” (Mentee 2 /Interview 4).*

and another mentioned the difficulty in meeting up and the need to be flexible:

*“Difficulty finding time to meet (more difficult for me than for her at the moment.) Also mentor is now acting in higher job at the moment, looking after staff but we tend to make it a lunchtime Interview, so this helps” (Mentee 4/Interview 1).*

Although there was recognition of high workloads and time pressures, mentees did make 13 positive responses about being able to manage their own diary and planning to meet up in advance,

as this induced them to make time for their own self development and to give this some priority, as follows:

*“We have set dates for the next six months; one a month to cover the first year of the course...Courtesy and good manners to try to keep appointments. My secretary knows that she can’t move it. All meetings will be at XXX as mentor has an office there, as I don’t have an office there, I’m not likely to be disturbed” (Mentee 1/Interview 1).*

*“It’s helpful to have the trust they give you as a manager, to manage your own time. It’s important to make time for things like this as it’s about your development so you have to make time” (Mentee 5/Interview 2).*

## **Mentors**

In 77.78% of all mentor interviews, the majority of responses (92.86%) relating to time were also predominantly negative. This factor had the highest responses by mentors, more than any other factor. Various mentors mentioned their high workload, workplace distractions and the juggling of different priorities as unhelpful factors:

*“Sometimes difficult to manage interruptions at work. Difficult to gain half an hour/45 minutes with lots of distractions” (Mentor 4/Interview 1).*

*“Difficulty finding time to get the meetings booked in. I hate letting people down...But sometimes it’s out of my control... my workload is enormous. It’s a challenge. Sometimes its manageable, other times its quite daunting and sometimes I feel like I’m just drowning...Don’t always get time to do things that you plan to do, like mentoring” (Mentor 1/Interview 1).*

*“It’s too easy to fill my diary with other things... my role isn’t a fixed role; I need to be careful I don’t take on too much. But I believe I need to make time for this sort of thing, as it’s as important as any other piece of work” (Mentor 5/Meeting 1).*



Two mentors mentioned mentee sickness, morale and holidays having an impact on the time to meet up too:

*“Time is an issue. Mentee been ill and very busy. Had to postpone meetings twice. Knew reasons for cancelling and fully agree that good reasons. Need to try to understand. I may be better at protecting time than she is. Maybe better at saying no” (Mentor 1/Meeting 1).*

*“Time issues, staff sickness has been a big hindrance, managing holidays, the whole divisional structure is changing as well and this is impacting...On one hand I feel guilty...  
...Stresses at work too” (Mentor 2/Interview 2).*

The two positive responses made by mentors in this factor related to being able to manage their own diary.

### **Difference.**

#### **Mentees**

In 50% of mentee interviews, difference was mentioned positively in all 12 responses. These two mentees mentioned difference in relation to previous work and study experiences and the current job:

*“She (mentor) did a graduate degree, whereas I didn’t. I worked and did studying later part time. So I think she came in at a more academic level, in terms of her working life, whereas I’ve worked my way up being clinical etc...she hasn’t always been in the NHS, she’s done a lot of varied things which makes her an incredibly interesting person in terms of how she can apply it, to how we work in the NHS. Whereas my career has been in the NHS. Doesn’t hinder, just makes things interesting and you get to see things from a different way of life” (Mentee 1/Interview 2).*

*“Her job is different, she does different projects and her approach is different and sometimes applying those to your own work situation, just widens your thought processes really... She does ward work really, rather than clinic work” (Mentee 4/Interview 3).*

Mentee 3 mentioned how difference was helping him become more like his mentor:

*“Mentor is more of an activist than I am, which helps me become more proactive too”  
(Mentee 3/Interview 1)*

Mentee 5 mentioned how her mentor's work ethic had rubbed off on her studies and job too:

*"He's very interested in change but he looks more in-depth into it than me. I just say I'll try it, whatever. But due to my studies I am looking into things a bit more. If something's going to happen, I don't just say yes I'm going to do that, I think more about who is affected by it really, what department is affected by it, what staff etc... We've got to look at that more strategically anyway now"* (Mentee 5/Interview 3).

## **Mentors**

In 44.44% of all mentor interviews, difference was mentioned positively in all 11 mentor responses. These three mentors mentioned difference in relation to work experiences, personal approach and ambition:

*"I'm from a technical and purchasing bias but mentee recognised from different bias and never even considered areas outside her own area of work. Mentee new to this area although starting to investigate purchasing as part of her new role in management and we've been looking at a massive picture, rather than a smaller picture"* (Mentor 2/Interview 1).

*"Whereas I might be a bit more blaze. I do get irritated sometimes if people try to make me do something, that I don't see the value in it...I do have to stop myself sometimes and say 'come on, use it properly.' ...I'm there with the Finance Director etc – you can't be in awe of them or anything. It's the same approach that she might have with the Consultants, that I might be fearful of myself"* (Mentor 4/Interview 2).

*"She's much more ambitious than me. Some things are more important to her than they are to me. For example; status. She's very focussed on achievement in quite an explicit way and I think my focus on achievement is less explicit"* (Mentor 1/Interview 3).

Mentor 5 mentioned how he was using his personality profile information with his mentee to raise awareness and to work with the differences:

*"I did share with her the personality and leadership quiz that we did as part of the mentoring training. I shared with her my scores so she can understand...so they can see themselves and any clashes too. i.e. once I get talking/get started, I don't stop. I'm conscious of that and I'm very aware of that and so with the mentees, I'm very aware that they should do the talking...It's a way to find out what differences we have got, probably not much clashes but it's about being aware of differences"* (Mentor 5/Interview 2).

### Other relationships.

#### **Mentees**

In 90% of mentee interviews (n=18), other relationships were discussed, with 55 out of 63 responses being positive. Their NHS tutors were mentioned frequently (mentioned 25 times), as were helpful fellow student colleagues (10 times) and helpful workplace colleagues (9 times). Other helpful relationships included support from family at home, the Mentor Co-ordinator and the University Library. Mentee 1 and Mentee 3 mentioned most of these areas below:

*“Our PGCert group has gelled – we’ve met up and shared information. Shared assignment and reference handouts. Good support whilst away...XX (Mentor Co-ordinator) and Tutor emailed me whilst away and kept me up to date. Also hard copies of her notes were sent out to me too.” (Mentee 1/Interview 1).*

*“My previous colleague/Divisional Director has been helpful. I have good access to the tutor. I see her regularly but as time goes on, I will probably see her less. Family understand it a bit more now. They know what it is. I didn’t tell them much about it at first; self-protection probably” (Mentee 3/Interview 2).*

Whereas Mentee 2 reflected that although there were other supportive relationships, the mentor was someone else to turn to:

*“I think it’s the support that she offered. The fact that you had someone else to turn to other than your college lecturers, tutors and your own line manager, you had somebody else to turn to for support if you were struggling, for instance” (Mentee 2/Interview 4).*

Mentee 1 mentioned she had subsequently set up a formal mentoring relationship externally, as a result of having been mentored within the NHS scheme and discussed the overlap:

*“Our former Chief Exec is going to be an external mentor for me. I reported to him before and he has mentored me informally before and I used him as a sounding board for a number of things, but this is going to be a bit more formal. I see him being more of a mentor for my particular career but I see my mentor here as being more specifically about the qualification” (Mentee 1/Interview 2).*

Although the most discussed supportive relationship, tutors were also mentioned negatively by three mentees, in respect of conflicting advice and the overlap between tutors and mentors. For example:

*“Last time I met my mentor, I was still upset about my assignment but he (mentor) looked at it and said it was fine...I was just disappointed with my grade actually and the feedback from the Tutor...As a group, we all talk and we all prefer the other tutor...But I do get on with her and I can talk to her, but she’s quite hard actually. She’s a bit thick skinned” (Mentee 5/Interview 3).*

## **Mentors**

Although the mentors made 41 fewer responses than mentees (n=22), they talked positively about other relationships too in 50% of the interviews. They mentioned the supportive role of work colleagues (5 times) and the NHS mentoring trainer (7 times), as well as support from tutors and external support networks. For example one mentor gained support from her own team:

*“I have helpful colleagues as part of the team. One doing an MBA (can call on him for info); he’s very supportive. Another doing a teaching qualification (on temporary staffing) – we all help each other. When you’re stressed they’ll boost you as well. They’re not mentors but they are classed as my support mechanism. Nice to know someone is there and you are not just isolated” (Mentor 2/Interview 1).*

while others mentioned the importance of the mentor’s ongoing training:

*“Training was helpful – gave me an idea of what should be doing. Also raised a few issues about whether line managers should mentor people they work with. I’m clear that they shouldn’t. But the training opened up some interesting discussion in this area” (Mentor 3/Interview 2).*

and how the training had helped to clarify the boundaries between the various roles of tutor and mentor:

*“See role of tutor quite different to mentoring; no grey areas here. Tutor is about academic content; mentor is about help in terms of communication skills etc” (Mentor 5/Interview 1).*

*“I have an overview of how it’s going to pan out. To the point where she has actually asked me if I would be willing to read her 2nd assignment and I’ve had to set the boundaries for that, because obviously I’m not her tutor and I’m not an academic and I won’t know that much about the subject... I’m a fellow student” (Mentor 1/Interview 2).*

No mentors mentioned the support of other mentors.

### **Similarity.**

#### **Mentees**

In 80% of their interviews (n=16), mentees discussed similarity influencing their mentoring relationships with the majority of responses being predominantly positive for instance 93.75% (30 out of 32). Various responses were made in relation to similarity in upbringing, work background, work experiences and values shared by both parties.

Mentee 3 mentioned similarity in thinking and background:

*“We do tend to think along the same lines perhaps but not on everything as we are different in our outlooks, my mentor and I. But the bottom line is that we’re both technical people really...we’re both fairly pragmatic and we’d say ‘what’s the point, you’d be just as frustrated in 5 years’ time” (Mentee 3/Interview 3).*

and Mentee 4 made a similar point about background and values:

*“I’ve known my mentor for a long time – both started in the hospital at the same time. Wide background and similar background – helps to understand where coming from...Mentor has been a Nurse and knows about patient care. My mentor and I share the same attitude about this. A lot of managers have not been hands on and don’t always see this from an ethical point of view. We will see this from different angle” (Mentee 4/Interview 1).*

While another mentee mentioned similarity in upbringing and motivation being helpful factors:

*“We have similar motivations. I wanted someone who was going into the 2nd year of the course as I want to do this too. It is important to me that we had this in common...We have had similar parental influences too...I have had a similar background and similar upbringing to my mentor” (Mentee 1/Interview 1).*

The following mentee mentioned a pre-NHS connection and work ethic as being a helpful factor:

*“We’ve got similar experiences outside of work before we started here; we both worked in the hotel trade. He used to work in a hotel and my parents owned a hotel, so I worked in a hotel since I was 11. We expect that we have to work hard and we expect our staff to as well. I know we all work differently and it can be frustrating. And we both like new things as well” (Mentee 5/Interview 2).*

Interestingly, Mentee 5 previously quoted at the start of this mentee section about the benefits of both being technical people, in the final mentoring interview reflected:

*“I think that it would be nice to go through the experience again with a mentor from a different field and then compare the two...I have a feeling that it might be better because stuff I can learn from someone from a completely different field, I think potentially there’s more I could glean” (Mentee 3/Interview 4).*

The two negative mentee responses about similarity related to mentee 2 and her concerns about too much support and too little challenge:

*“Presently mentors laid back approach has been helpful at the start but concerned may not be later on; may need more of a push and more of challenge now” (Mentee 2/Interview 1).*

*“Maybe if I’d had a mentor who was a more experienced manager they might’ve pushed me a little harder, challenged me a bit more, whereas XX was more supportive...They might have been supportive but tried to push me a bit more, perhaps, I don’t know” (Mentee 2/Interview 4).*

## Mentors

For mentors, the majority of responses (22 out of 23) in 77.78% of their interviews on similarity were positive. These three mentors mentioned similarity in relation to previous work and home-life experiences and the current job:

*“We are both calm people; that works well...Similar that stepped into managerial position as well i.e. been colleague and now stepped into managerial role within the same team. I’ve got empathy with that situation...She juggling her workload with her family life as well...I can empathise with this” (Mentor 2/Interview 2).*

*“I’m sure for some people it’s different, but for me it’s been a massive help to have known my mentee before and be from a similar background...It was more a case of this is what we’re going to do, we’re both happy with it, yes, and then let’s get on with it. She knew my style. I knew her style. I knew how far I could push her; she knew how far she could push me” (Mentor 5/Interview 3).*

*“We’ve both been nurses is the thing...But I think it’s even more than that. It’s in that personality you know, the area of personality as well. But you see, in many respects, she’s a strong person” (Mentor 4/Interview 4).*

The idea of similar strengths and approaches as being helpful were pursued by mentor 1 and 3 too:

*“Both doers – both have a drive to succeed...Both very direct – we are prepared to be direct about that...There are some dangers in being too similar and too different. Need mentee to believe in you and believe you are there for them. Need to understand and be flexible with your approach” (Mentor 1/Interview 1).*

*“We communicate effectively; he’s not afraid to ask and I’m not afraid to tell. We have trust – I know the person that I’m mentoring. We have been working together since 1990” (Mentor 3/Interview 1).*

One negative comment was made by mentor 1 and related to time issues created by being too alike and getting on well:

*“Another problem is that because we get on well, the time seems to fly by and so time management is an issue. Initially the responsibility is mine but hopefully over time, it will become more even...As time goes on, she will be much more demanding of me and much clearer about what she wants” (Mentor 1/Interview 2).*

## APPENDIX XII: A SUMMARY OF THE CEPF INTERVIEW FINDINGS ABOUT LEARNING OVER TIME

### MENTEES

Learning domains	What mentees perceived they were learning (up to interview 1)	What mentees perceived they were learning (up to interview 2)	What mentees perceived they were learning (up to interview 3)	What mentees perceived they learnt (up to interview 4)
<b>Cognitive</b>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Advice on how to manage upwards</li> <li>• Know a lot more about each other/open about everything</li> <li>• More awareness about how to behave at work</li> <li>• What's required in terms of leadership</li> <li>• Learning practical things</li> <li>• Promotion process to Sergeant</li> <li>• Highlighting my weaknesses</li> <li>• Getting a measure of where I'm at</li> <li>• It's useful to speak to someone from another LPU to get a feeling of perspective and know it's not just us that are worried about forthcoming changes</li> <li>• What the CTU does</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Strategic perspective</li> <li>• Trying not to go at 100 miles an hour, to take a different perspective</li> <li>• Learning about policy and processes</li> <li>• Better overview of the Force</li> <li>• How to prepare for interview as part of restructure</li> <li>• That anything I do can be used as evidence of leadership and if I write it down, it can be used should I go through a Board in the future</li> <li>• Hearing about career options provides ideas and inspiration on how I can progress</li> <li>• Gained an insight into the CTU</li> <li>• Had an insight into the DPSL course</li> <li>• More ideas for potential courses that may be relevant to my career</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Learning from a relevant role model – mentor has had similar experiences and I can aspire to what she has done. I think to myself, what am I being lazy about? She's done it</li> <li>• Inspirational – over the past years, mentor has achieved a lot</li> <li>• Get advice and guidance that I don't get from my Manager</li> <li>• Options as a 'Restricted Officer'</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• An insight into the wider perspective of the organisation from someone with a strategic view point</li> <li>• Gaining a personal perspective on someone else's experience and their individual career choices</li> <li>• Good to gain another perspective on things</li> <li>• Valuable 'outside office input'</li> <li>• Another perspective</li> <li>• We are all in the same boat</li> <li>• Feels good to know the doom and gloom is spread about</li> <li>• Good to know that mentor been through it before and survived</li> <li>• Learnt that always been fairly proactive in my own development. Mentoring has made me mindful of this</li> <li>• Learnt that less likely to get down about things that are going on</li> </ul>
<b>Skill-based</b>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Discussed frustrations and coping strategies</li> <li>• Help with goal setting</li> <li>• Help me to 'get a grip' and get my priorities in order</li> <li>• Help with mind mapping</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Some tactics to manage up</li> <li>• She's given me logistical stuff around training</li> <li>• Managing stress levels</li> <li>• Note-taking</li> <li>• Goal setting</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Help when re-applying for my job</li> <li>• Help with applications</li> <li>• Learning I had my priorities all wrong, need to refocus on myself, need to be loyal to</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Sometimes I dither and don't put sentences together very well. Mentor has helped me see a clear path</li> <li>• Generally don't have time to reflect outside of the PDR,</li> </ul>



	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Had to deliver some training, so had some practical support re training</li> <li>• How to motivate the team</li> <li>• Coping mechanisms/how to overcome some things which seem difficult</li> <li>• Influencing</li> <li>• Note-taking</li> <li>• Lesson planning</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Listening skills</li> <li>• Updating my CV, adapting my interview techniques, and answering interview questions effectively</li> <li>• Developing my personal skills</li> </ul>	<p>myself</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• To pace myself</li> <li>• Ability to say no</li> <li>• Helping relieve stress</li> <li>• Help with applications</li> <li>• My mentor has given me some useful ideas on how I can make myself stand out if it does come to re-applying for my job. i.e. Courses, Casualty Bureau</li> <li>• Value of managing workload and avoiding stress</li> <li>• Pacing, managing workload</li> </ul>	<p>mentoring gives you the time to do this</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Learnt to manage my expectations better</li> <li>• Clearer about my long term goals – where I want to be</li> <li>• Skills to manage/work with others better</li> <li>• Communication skills</li> </ul>
<b>Affective-related</b>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Anything is achievable, once you go for it</li> <li>• Was starting to feel down but mentor being positive has rubbed off on me</li> <li>• Increased confidence</li> <li>• Self awareness</li> <li>• Have big issue with trust; trying to relax about it/trying to be more open</li> <li>• Extra motivation</li> <li>• Asking for a mentor was difficult for me/have difficulty asking for help – have a lot of self doubt</li> <li>• Don't put yourself down, don't be negative about yourself</li> <li>• I've almost had to change some of my demeanour almost and accept the way some things work. I've had to make a very strong, sort of like, movement upwards</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Learnt that don't open up myself as feel going to get criticised but can open up with my mentor; better to ask silly questions with someone you don't work with</li> <li>• Boost to morale at difficult time</li> <li>• Developed confidence in what I can achieve at work x2</li> <li>• Learning about my expectations and needs</li> <li>• I have learned how I learn</li> <li>• Feel more positive, rather than to feel even lower</li> <li>• I am now more confident and have secured my job</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Feel positive talking to her; my mood gets better and better and it boosts my morale</li> <li>• I needed some ego-stroking</li> <li>• Building self confidence has been a big thing. I'm not used to talking about myself</li> <li>• Helped confidence issues</li> <li>• My morale has been very low, helped to see there is life outside work</li> <li>• Gaining more confidence in addressing the team</li> <li>• My mentor has asked me about responsibilities I have taken on in my spare time, which makes me realise I enjoy putting myself forward to help others out</li> <li>• Trusting myself</li> <li>• Had new role, new people to</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• That my future is in my hands. You have to work for it and motivate yourself to meet goals. People can only help</li> <li>• To believe in yourself. Don't think I would have been here without my mentor</li> <li>• That I'm doing ok and that I can slow down a bit</li> <li>• It has given me the clarity and confidence to put things into perspective</li> <li>• I tend to be more open minded when meeting new people; I have recently changed roles and welcomed any support and friendship whatever the rank! I am willing to allow relationships at work to develop and not plan the outcome or set expectations</li> <li>• Not frightened to explore</li> </ul>

			work with; helped with building confidence and clear up some of my doubts.	<p>now/more confidence in my own thoughts</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• I talk about work and I get happy. Especially when someone else agrees with me and gives me that confidence boost</li> <li>• Its given me the confidence to achieve what I want</li> <li>• It's let me be myself. Let me identify my values and believe according to them. It's been really important</li> </ul>
<b>Social networks</b>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• We swapped contacts about who we can perhaps talk to</li> <li>• She says that if she can't help me, or she doesn't know, then she will find out</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• New connections</li> <li>• My mentor signposts me to learning opportunities I would not otherwise be informed of</li> </ul>		<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Establishing a new relationship with someone I would not normally have encountered</li> <li>• I wouldn't have come across that if it wasn't for her involvement in it and suggesting it to me</li> </ul>

## MENTORS

Learning domains	What mentors perceived they were learning (up to interview 1)	What mentors perceived they were learning (up to interview 2)	What mentors perceived they were learning (up to interview 3)	What mentors perceived they learnt (up to interview 4)
<b>Cognitive</b>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Raised awareness of things not thought of before/different point of view</li> <li>• Learning about differences between people</li> <li>• Learnt about Sergeants exams</li> <li>• Learnt about Leadership course within WMP</li> <li>• Learnt about mentee</li> <li>• Learnt that I have got things to offer – I have had valuable 8 years experience in the job</li> <li>• Conscious that not everyone thinks/feels like I do</li> <li>• Thinking a bit more</li> <li>• Interesting to hear other women's views on their role/value</li> <li>• Better understating of the Police</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Learnt that it is very important to spend time on others</li> <li>• Learnt to value others for who they are</li> <li>• To think wider than before</li> <li>• Learnt what I do know/got knowledge to pass on</li> <li>• Getting to know about a different side to the organisation; didn't know much about the front line policing role</li> <li>• Recognising and understanding that all different</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Everyone is different. The way I do it, isn't necessarily the way she does it</li> <li>• Accepting that not all my advice is for her</li> <li>• Reminder about previous jobs etc; I can remember feeling like that</li> <li>• An insight into other working practices and other departments</li> <li>• Thinking in a different way. Challenging to think from different perspective</li> <li>• Rapport better with one mentee than others; have reflected on this and think its due to different personal style. Not same flow with one. More uncomfortable. Reflectors Vs Activists.</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Reminder that I'm in a positive department; quite an eye opener</li> <li>• Helped me think about what I enjoyed and what to do elsewhere</li> <li>• Know when to stop</li> <li>• Need to personalise it (when mentee not engaged)</li> <li>• That my opinion is valued and relevant</li> <li>• I realise I can manage mentoring and my day job, so happy to carry on</li> <li>• Would like to do more to help women in policing</li> <li>• Gaining first hand experience of how people are being affected by the change programme and the re-structuring and how vulnerable and apprehensive people are</li> <li>• I didn't know I could make a difference by mentoring someone but now I know I can</li> </ul>
<b>Skill-based</b>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Learnt about pulling back (not telling her what to do)</li> <li>• Time keeping; need to keep focussed</li> <li>• You've got to be careful it doesn't become a cosy chat</li> <li>• Empathy skills</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Developing questioning/challenging skills</li> <li>• Developing motivational skills</li> <li>• To take things easy and re-examine what I do</li> <li>• Helped me to listen better</li> <li>• Learnt not to go for first</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Listening and questioning skills</li> <li>• Analytical skills and listening – what do they really mean?</li> <li>• More structured, challenging questioning</li> <li>• Rapport building skills</li> <li>• I'm outward orientated</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Be patient and hold back. I can be quite outcome orientated. Need to learn that it is a journey for them</li> <li>• Learnt to display more empathy and my own feelings more</li> <li>• Developed skill of getting</li> </ul>

	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• How to empower others</li> <li>• I'm not going to try and push things</li> <li>• Preparation is key</li> </ul>	<p>instinctive thought</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Learning to wait, be tolerant</li> <li>• Asking questions in my own job now</li> </ul>	<p>so it's a real learning curve for me to try and hold back</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Honing skills of reflection</li> </ul>	<p>people to do things for themselves</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Learnt to offer support and empower mentee when needed</li> <li>• To sit back and listen more</li> </ul>
<b>Affective-related</b>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Similar to mentee; she needs reassurance and confidence and I do too</li> <li>• More sure about self as mentor now; felt nervous at the start</li> <li>• Feeling better about self in role now</li> <li>• I've learned that I have got things to offer</li> <li>• Feel like it's stretching, but I don't feel like it's hard work</li> <li>• Felt a bit more confident that I could pry a little bit. And she was being quite open with me, so that was really good</li> <li>• It's just made me a bit more sure of myself and given me that boost of confidence</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Enjoy working with those who lack confidence (as my own self confidence was an issue for me when I started)</li> <li>• Made me think that I'm in control</li> <li>• Helped confidence with another group that I'm part of outside of work</li> <li>• More confidence with others</li> <li>• Has helped me to express myself better</li> <li>• Feel more assertive now</li> <li>• Keep positive with them</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Realise that sometimes have to take the opportunities that come your way</li> <li>• Feeling empowered</li> <li>• Mentoring is about having an open attitude to things that come up and treating people as individuals; empowering mentees to make their own decisions</li> <li>• Learnt more about me</li> <li>• Learning about the positive effect that I can have on people</li> <li>• Its so rewarding, I feel like a different person</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Good to challenge myself about my own life. Not really thought about this in relation to me before</li> <li>• Should say no to certain things</li> <li>• That I can inspire and instil confidence through the mentoring process</li> <li>• I've thought perhaps I've gone too far in reflectiveness, but actually, if that's the root cause, then it's the right thing to do</li> <li>• I think from a personal perspective I'm more confident with it</li> <li>• I feel a bit more empowered now to do things about my life rather than feeling 'Oh well, this has happened to me and what am I going to do? It's like, well, you know, you can do things to help yourself</li> <li>• I've challenged myself</li> </ul>
<b>Social networks</b>		<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Met up with another mentor; shared information</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Others appreciate your contacts</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Amazing how many people I know that I can help with/networks</li> </ul>

## APPENDIX XIII

### A SELECTION OF NEPF MENTEE AND MENTOR QUOTATIONS ABOUT LEARNING

In this Appendix, a selection of NEPF mentee and mentor responses will be shared against each learning domain, starting with cognitive learning.

*Note: The exact sources have not been included with the following quotations, for example Mentee 1, Mentee 2 and so on, as detailed notes were not taken in relation to who specifically gave which response in the focus groups.*

#### Cognitive learning.

##### **Mentees**

Cognitive learning was discussed in 11 out of 12 (91.67%) mentee focus groups. The key themes for mentees were around learning a fresh outlook and a wider perspective of the force (in fact 48 responses out of the 54 made by mentees) but they also mentioned they were learning about new learning and development opportunities; either courses or new projects available.

These mentees made responses about the wider perspective:

*“Gaining knowledge in areas I might not have previously been able to”  
(Mentee/Cohort 1/Focus Group 2).*

*“Mentoring has helped me think outside the box/has helped me develop my knowledge of XX Police and corporate politics” (Mentee/Cohort 1/Focus Group 2).*

*“Had a ‘light bulb’ moment within a mentoring meeting. We can become insular/keep to what we know. Now know more about what happens elsewhere and why. Seems less barriers in the way, especially between Officer and Staff roles”  
(Mentee/Cohort 1/Focus Group 3).*

In the mentee focus group 3 (cohort 1) improved organisational awareness was mentioned by 7 different mentees. This mentee remarked:

*“I’m more aware of the strategic issues; the romance Vs the reality now”  
(Mentee/Cohort 3/Focus Group 2).*

This mentee mentioned that an improved wider insight opens up avenues for future projects:

*“More strategic awareness. Helping see where projects are available; helps to build strategic awareness and become aware of the bigger plans for the Force”*  
(Mentee/Cohort 4/Focus Group 1).

These mentees had been encouraged through mentoring to get exposure in the wider force:

*“Initially intimidated talking to Senior Officers but encouraged by mentor to push my ideas into a wider area/impact wider perspective”* (Mentee/Cohort 4/Focus Group 2).

*“I get it’ – better understanding of the Force in general and the level of importance of what I do and how it fits together. Feel a lot calmer and have stood up for myself more”*  
(Mentee/Cohort 4/Focus Group 3).

This mentee at the end of the final session thanked her mentor for:

*“Their help and support/helping me take a project further/building my confidence/giving a wider Force perspective/for being normal and nice”* (Mentee/Cohort 4/Focus Group 3).

## **Mentors**

32 responses were made by mentors in the cognitive domain equating to almost half (41.03%) of their total responses. The key themes for mentors were around an increased knowledge of their mentees and gaining some insights into mentoring. With this mentor saying he had learnt:

*“It’s about them and not about me but I do find it fantastically rewarding seeing their development”* (Mentor/Cohort 1/Focus Group 2).

These mentors in focus group 1 (cohort 3) stated that they had learnt that:

*“Everybody is different; different needs, views, perceptions... need to persevere to understand the differences”* (Mentor/Cohort 1/Focus Group 3).

*“Learnt that mentoring is not so much about work related activities but about personal skills/abilities which will impact work role. More focused on personal stuff”*  
(Mentor/Cohort 3/Focus Group 2).

This mentor commented on the lack of wider knowledge of their mentees:

*“Surprised by mentees lack of strategic knowledge and confidence at the start”  
(Mentor/Cohort 4/Focus Group 2).*

Little was mentioned from mentors about the wider perspective, although there were three responses in this area by mentors, with one mentor saying:

*“Mentoring is a two-way street – mentee shared their knowledge back to me. Now have a better awareness of the control room/the real picture” (Mentor/Cohort 1/Focus Group 3).*

Another mentor mentioned that they were able to learn more about what goes on in Local Policing, through mentoring and he had since returned to work again in that area. He said:

*“It was good to see other perspectives and look at the effort people are willing to put in...gave me the insight to go back and look at my own career; which has helped to reinvigorate me back into Local Policing. Their enthusiasm and love of their job was inspiring” (Mentor/Cohort 4/Focus Group 3).*

### **Skill-based learning.**

#### **Mentees**

Skill-based learning was mentioned in 100% of mentee focus groups (n=12) but was the domain with the lowest response rate for mentees (38 out of a total 188 responses). The main themes for mentees were in relation to learning goal setting skills, problem solving skills, leadership and management skills, emotional intelligence, reflection and communication skills in this learning domain. This mentee listed a number of skills:

*“Developed skills of communication, presentation, reflection and self awareness”  
(Mentee/cohort 1/focus group 2).*

An improved focus was mentioned by 7 mentees in cohort 1 (3<sup>rd</sup> focus group), with this mentee saying:

*“I’d been through 360 degree feedback and thought I knew where I wanted to go. Then had self-realisation in relation to where my skills set are and why I joined the Police in the first place and now delivering training regionally. That’s my skill set. I now know where I am and what I need to do” (Mentee/cohort 1/focus group 3).*

This mentee explained how an improved focus has helped improve her delegation skills:

*“Helping me to focus on getting one thing finished first, instead of starting many things. This is helping me to reduce the guilt of not always finishing things and improving my delegation skills” (Mentee/cohort 3/focus group 3)*

A mentee in another focus group mentioned the method used by their mentor to improve their learning and focus, whilst mentoring:

*“Mentor has given me a big kick up the ass!’ to give me a focus”  
(Mentee/cohort 4/focus group 1).*

Mentees also mentioned that they were developing their reflection skills and improving their self awareness further:

*“I’ve been reflecting on my journey and developing (critical) reflection skills”  
(Mentee/cohort 4/focus group 3).*

*“I’ve been learning how to raise profile with a target audience in mind”  
(Mentee/cohort 3/focus group 1).*

## **Mentors**

Skill-based learning was mentioned the least by mentors (14.10% of responses) in the least number of focus groups (7 out of 12.) Reflection skills was the main theme coming through for mentors (mentioned in five different focus groups) as well as developing self-awareness through listening skills.



This mentor listed the majority:

*“As a mentor learning about reflection, mentoring skills awareness, listening”  
(Mentor/cohort 1/focus group 2).*

This mentor reflected on developing their mentoring skills over time:

*“We’re mentors because we want to do it. We care. As new to mentoring, put pressure on ourselves to get it right, but with next new mentee it will be easier, as know a bit more what to expect/reassured about our own skills a bit more” (Mentor/cohort 1/focus group 3).*

This mentor reflected on learning from a variety of mentees:

*“Had 2 quite different mentees, which helped to ensure additional skills and learning for mentors. Good argument for everyone to have 2” (Mentor/cohort 2/focus group 2).*

These mentors reflected on how the skills they developed may benefit them beyond the mentoring relationship:

*“Helping to refine own skills in a safe relationship, which will make self-better in own role and to give better contribution to the organisation” (Mentor/cohort 3/focus group 2).*

*“Helps you to look at what you do; easy to get bogged down and not look up”  
(Mentor/cohort 4/focus group 3).*

### **Affective-related learning.**

#### **Mentees**

In this domain, mentee’s made 54 responses across 91.67% of all focus groups and their responses in this domain tended to focus on the themes of increased confidence, drive/motivation, self-awareness of weaker areas and improved attitude towards self, others and the job.

Confidence received the highest number of responses (25 responses were made in total using the word confidence), with mentees saying:

*“Self confidence – I got myself out there and I’ve changed as I had this opportunity. I feel a different person. I’ve done quite a lot of the development myself and can acknowledge my skills better now i.e. self-awareness/can look at the problems within me better”*  
(Mentee/cohort 1/focus group 3).

*“Confidence; delivering myself differently, need to consider structure, language, expectations”* (Mentee/cohort 4/focus group 1).

*“I can have confidence in myself as I know that other people think I’m a good Cop. You are good at this job. Go out and do something and have confidence to sort it out. I will make a difference whatever I do. Recognised this in the last 9-12 months, but the mentoring process has accelerated this for me. It has changed me outside of work too. I am a happier, positive person. I am more positive in what I think about myself”*  
(Mentee/cohort 4/focus group 2).

Mentees in cohort 1/focus group 3 mentioned they had an increased confidence (mentioned by 7 mentees), increased drive/motivation (five mentees), increased self-reliance (three mentees) and self awareness (four mentees mentioned this.)

This mentee showed they had learnt new insights into themselves:

*“I feel like I’ve found out about myself”* (Mentee/cohort 1/focus group 2).

This mentee showed they had learnt new insights into others:

*“Don’t judge people. You don’t know what battles they are fighting”*  
(Mentee/cohort 1/focus group 3).

Sometimes this journey had not been easy though, with two mentees saying:

*“Sometimes feedback has been difficult to take. Seen the harsh reality but it has increased my self-awareness”* (Mentee/cohort 1/focus group 1).

*“Realised I’m not as good as I thought I was. Mentor has helped me to be critical about my own development. I could do better”* (Mentee/cohort 2/focus group 1).

This mentee saw the benefits of having a raised self-awareness too:

*“Being mentored has forced me to confront certain things about my work personality – still have a laugh but feel happier and more professional now” Mentee/cohort 4/focus group 2).*

## **Mentors**

In this domain, mentors made 22 responses across 8 focus groups (66.67%) and mentioned improved self-awareness too but mostly in relation to their confidence to mentor, rather than any deeper, more personal learning beyond mentoring.

This mentor reflected on their confidence to challenge:

*“Feeling more confident of judging the right moment to challenge”  
(Mentor/cohort 1/focus group 1).*

Helping the mentees to reflect, helped the mentors to reflect on their own learning too:

*“I had two very self-aware mentees who reflected on their learning and this encouraged me to reflect on my own learning too” (Mentor/cohort 1/focus group 3).*

This mentor reflected on learning from the challenges brought to them by their mentees:

*“I’d like to thank my mentee for bringing some challenges to me, for having an open and honest discussion which has meant we have learnt from each other”  
(Mentor/cohort 4/focus group 3).*

Other mentors did share insights which may have an impact beyond mentoring, for example:

*“Increased acceptance of change/dealing with uncertainty”  
(Mentor/cohort 1/focus group 2).*

*“Mentoring stopped me thinking about me” (Mentor/cohort 3/focus group 2).*

## Social networks.

### **Mentees**

Social networks were mentioned in 11 focus groups (91.67%) and 42 responses were made by mentees. Mentees mentioned their mentor's useful networks more than the skills they have gained through mentoring (42 responses on social networks and 38 responses on skills.) Mentees stated they were grateful for the contacts given to them in relation to new projects available and new opportunities within the force. This mentees mentioned learning about:

*"Development opportunities within other departments i.e. interviews not normally attend, networks, strategic opportunities" (Mentee/cohort 1/focus group 2).*

Other mentees mentioned how proactive their mentors had been, organising time in other areas:

*"Mentor helping to organise experience days (for me) in other departments" (Mentee/cohort 2/focus group 1).*

*"Had some interviews with other departments; learnt about management skills (motivation, dealing with underperformance etc.) and has given me role models to aspire to" (Mentee/cohort 2/focus group 2).*

This mentee mentioned being given contacts in areas they were not initially keen on:

*"Opening doors for me into areas that may not have wanted to try before e.g. CID" (Mentee/cohort 4/focus group 1).*

This mentee mentioned learning to be able to see the bigger picture now for themselves:

*"Lifting my head off the desk and seeing the wider world" (Mentee/cohort 4/focus group 2).*

This mentee summed up how their mentors experience and networks have helped them progress within projects:

*“Mentors experience and knowledge/expertise has been shared with me, and I have used this to help on the projects that I’ve worked on. Networks in the workplace have helped too” (Mentee/cohort 4/focus group 3).*

## **Mentors**

Social networks were mentioned in seven focus groups (58.33%) and 13 responses were made by mentors. The focus of mentor responses tended to be on sharing their learning with other contacts themselves, rather than mentees providing these for them directly. This mentor discussed that they have now developed a contact within HR:

*“Taken to various interviews/had various follow up interviews with HR”  
(Mentee/cohort 2/focus group 2).*

This mentor, who worked in a HRD related field mentioned:

*“Making connections with others engaged in L&D; shared learning”  
(Mentee/cohort 1/focus group 1).*

Mostly mentor’s responses in this area were in relation to what they had done for their mentees and not what connections mentees had shared with them. With this mentor saying:

*“It’s good to take time out to think about someone else. Interesting to hear mentees viewpoint and being able to use your influence to help them get what they want”  
(Mentee/cohort 4/focus group 2).*

## **APPENDIX XIV**

### **A SELECTION OF NEPF MENTEE AND MENTOR QUOTATIONS ABOUT MODERATING FACTORS**

In this Appendix, a selection of NEPF mentee and mentor responses will be shared against each of the four key moderating factors, starting with HR Challenges.

#### **HR Challenges.**

##### **Mentees**

In 66.67% of the mentees focus groups, HR Challenges were discussed (n=8) and out of 15 total responses, 10 were negative. For mentees, HR Challenges tended to focus on the lack of learning and development opportunities available and the expectations that mentoring would lead to promotion for mentees. These two factors may be connected as in the absence of other learning and development opportunities available and mentoring being the only intervention available, it may be that it was seen as the only vehicle to enhance skills towards any new job opportunities or promotions. These mentees mentioned the lack of development opportunities:

*“There is a lack of ability in the current climate to arrange development opportunities (need to think laterally)” (Mentee/cohort 1/focus group 1).*

*“There are limited attachments and opportunities to develop here”  
(Mentee/cohort 2/focus group 2).*

This mentee, who had been with the NEPF for 8 years, reflected:

*“First time, since completed my probation that anyone has been interested in my development” (Mentee/cohort 4/focus group 1).*

In terms of promotion, this mentee articulated many mentees thinking:

*“Expectations that mentoring will lead to promotion but mentor managed those expectations early but this is still what I want” (Mentee/cohort 1/focus group 1).*

It seemed clear that managers were not helping this situation either:

*“Heard bosses say ‘if you want promotion, you want to get yourself on the mentoring programme’. There is a wider misunderstanding about how helpful mentoring is in relation to promotion?” (Mentee/cohort 4/focus group 2).*

This mentee in a final focus group session mentioned:

*“We need to re-think keep repeating that mentoring is not about promotion as promotion is part of it and certain numbers of mentees do get promotion...we want development that is sustainable over time, in order to create better quality candidates and mentoring supports this” (Mentee/cohort 4/focus group 3).*

## **Mentors**

In 75% of the mentors focus groups, HR Challenges were discussed (n=9) and out of 15 total responses, 9 were negative. Mentors also discussed the lack of development opportunities and also the misunderstanding about promotion which have been affecting mentoring. These mentors highlighted the lack of opportunities available for promotion (but not necessarily the lack of learning and development opportunities):

*“The Police promotion process is restricting opportunities. There are limited career pathways” (Mentor/cohort 1/focus group 1).*

*“Little opportunities for promotion and development...lack of access to development courses (i.e. presentation skills)...Need to be careful about promotion linked to mentoring – not everyone has the opportunity. This is about talent wanting to development in readiness...Shouldn’t be the top 2%” (Mentor/cohort 1/focus group 2).*

This mentor, after seeing the generic mentee feedback shared in the focus group session, shared his view about one of the mentee responses above:

*“Shame about the mentee feedback comment: ‘First time, since completed my probation that anyone has been interested in my development.’ ...Increasingly people are getting caught within their specialist knowledge areas and not developing beyond them...mentoring tries to connect mentors/mentees in different areas; we need a Force wide formal exchange” (Mentor/cohort 4/focus group 2).*

These mentors mentioned the misunderstanding between the mentoring and promotion connection, which had an impact on mentoring expectations and satisfaction with outcomes:

*“Still, for some mentees, there is a misunderstanding of the purpose of the scheme. Still need to reinforce this isn’t about promotion or seen as a fast track option for promotion”*  
(Mentor/cohort 2/focus group 2).

*“The P (promotion) word! First mentee driven towards the promotion process...mentees have a misunderstanding of the scheme...still perceived to be a promotion requirement”*  
(Mentor/cohort 3/focus group 1).

Interestingly, this mentor made a point that did show that mentoring was helping towards promotion:

*“Approximately two thirds of mentees are in the promotion process at the moment”*  
(Mentor/cohort 4/focus group 2).

As a result of the recent Promotion Boards (July 2015) at NEPF, 50% of those who were mentees gained a promotion.

### **Managers.**

#### **Mentees**

In 75% of the mentee focus groups, managers were discussed (n=9) and out of 24 total responses, 19 were negative. Responses about the support or otherwise from managers were one of the key areas of discussion by mentees. Some mentioned that managers were supportive initially, for example:

*“There is a difference in what they (managers) say and what they do. They may support the mentoring application but when it comes to releasing for interviews, may not always be flexible”* (Mentee/cohort 4/focus group 1).

Others mentioned managers were unsupportive, for example:

*“Line managers not always helpful...we need to think how we sell the scheme to them/this may influence how they filter?”* (Mentee/cohort 1/focus group 1).



Some mentioned their managers were unaware, for example:

*“Some managers do not know about it but are not necessarily unhelpful”  
(Mentee/cohort 1/focus group 1).*

Some mentioned their managers felt left out, for example:

*“My line manager appears to feel a bit left out sometimes...I keep her updated though”  
(Mentee/cohort 1/focus group 1).*

Some mentioned that some managers were more helpful than others, for example:

*“Some inconsistencies with line managers...some more supportive than others; some let mentees use work time to meet, some work time/some own time, others expected mentees to only use their own time” (Mentee/cohort 3/focus group 1).*

Inconsistencies are brought up by this mentee too:

*“Mentor has given consistency. Since my mentoring has started, I have had 2 Sergeants and 3 Inspectors so difficult to get honest feedback from them. Good that mentor didn't change and was my consistent contact throughout” (Mentee/cohort 1/focus group 1).*

This mentee summed up managers and their support by saying:

*“Some (line managers) are very supportive, some less interested but not unsupportive. Some line managers not supportive but those in higher positions were supportive”  
(Mentee/cohort 3/focus group 1).*

Another issue was changes in line management, with new managers not always being aware of the mentoring scheme. In cohort 3/focus group 3, two mentees mentioned they had three changes of line manager over the duration of the mentoring scheme and were having to re-explain to them each time the purpose of the scheme and to try to get their belated buy-in.

However, there were some positive responses made about helpful managers:

*“Feel that bosses do care and they're there for you” Mentee/cohort 4/focus group 2).*

This mentee reflected on the importance of keeping their manager and mentor separate:

*“Line manager is job focused and your mentor isn’t directly involved, and so no reason for your mentor not to be honest or for you to not be honest with them. Mentor is independent and neutral, whereas a line manager may want to keep you and not share opportunities to move on” (Mentee/cohort 4/focus group 3).*

## **Mentors**

There were very few responses from mentors on management; four in four focus groups; two positive and two negative. The mentor responses centred on either line managers being supportive or as one mentor put it: ‘appearing to be supportive’ (Mentor/cohort 2/focus group 3) or alternatively management conflict, for example:

*“Hindering factors are line managers, Unit politics...Had to deal with managing conflict with line managers...encouraged mentee to share progress with their line managers...so they started to realise the benefits” (Mentor/cohort 1/focus group 1).*

## **Time.**

### **Mentees**

This was the biggest area of response by mentees. In 75% of the mentee focus groups, time was discussed (n=9) and out of 27 total responses, 16 were negative.

Some mentees discussed lack of opportunity to see their mentor due to their mentor’s workload:

*“Only had two interviews, and one phone call as couldn’t make it. Some emails not answered” (Mentee/cohort 1/focus group 1).*

*“Time biggest issue...my mentor is a very wanted person, so you always have everyone after him/sometimes means that our meetings are interrupted...Mentor has had some 360 feedback about being contactable, so he is trying to be contactable for colleagues but this is disrupting our meetings” (Mentee/cohort 2/focus group 1).*

Other mentees mentioned their own workload issues hindering frequency of meetings:

*“Managing time...My progress has sometimes fallen by the wayside due to workload. I then have to really focus to get on track” (Mentee/cohort 1/focus group 2).*

*“Issues with scheduling...both meeting at mutual time sometimes difficult (due to family pressures)...some meetings cancelled. Would like the chance to spend more time with mentor but difficult to find time when both not in the same place, at work i.e. one in North and one in South” (Mentee/cohort 3/focus group 2).*

Some responses were positive, with this mentee saying that even though busy, finding time for mentoring was important to them:

*“When you are being busy in your job, mentoring is a good focus point to help prepare you and to reflect” (Mentee/cohort 2/focus group 2).*

*“I know what I want. It’s about me. I have given time outside of work. I didn’t have to do it but I wanted to” (Mentee/cohort 1/focus group 3).*

Other responses were made about alternative helpful ways of keeping in touch with mentors, for example:

*“Mentor is approachable...allows me to text, send emails, make phone calls, access his diary” (Mentee/cohort 3/focus group 2).*

## **Mentors**

In 75% of the mentor focus groups, time was discussed (n=9) and out of 20 total responses, 13 were negative. Mentors discussed their unhelpful workload and their busy diaries:

*“Competing demands on my time/time management issues; having to cancel interviews due to work commitments, time pressures, time spent chasing”  
(Mentor/cohort 1/focus group 1).*

*“Difficulty finding time to devote to the process. Difficulty with shift patterns and fitting around each other. Distance between us/difficulty finding time to meet”  
(Mentor/cohort 2/focus group 1).*

*“Demand on work time, too much going on at work/lots of issues, dealing with crises sometimes mean have to cancel interviews/even though prioritise still had to cancel a mentoring Interview” (Mentee/cohort 4/focus group 1).*

These mentors reflected on whether they could have been more supportive to their mentees:

*“Let my mentee down as unable to do the shadowing that had promised (due to workload) but hoping to rearrange” (Mentor/cohort 4/focus group 2).*

*“Wonder if had enough contact and if I’ve dug deep enough...Been busy and not met up as much as would have liked but mentee seems happy – we did a lot of work in the earlier sessions” (Mentor/cohort 4/focus group 2).*

### **Personal factors.**

#### **Mentees**

In 58.33% of the mentee focus groups, Personal Factors were discussed (n=7) and out of 12 total responses, 6 were positive and 6 were negative. For mentees, hindering personal factors tended to focus on mentees taking time to realise what they really wanted and expected from mentoring, taking time to realise they needed to drive the relationship and complications with family commitments.

*“Took me a long time to figure out what I wanted from the mentoring”  
(Mentee/cohort 1/focus group 2).*

*“Lack of knowledge about how to push it” (Mentee/cohort 2/focus group 2).*

*“Took me some time to rise to the challenges and to take everything in”  
(Mentee/cohort 4/focus group 2).*

Mentee positive responses focussed around having approachable mentors and building up a friendship with their mentors:

*“Helpful having an open relationship and later on, a friendship with my mentor”  
(Mentee/cohort 1/focus group 1).*

## Mentors

This was the biggest area of response by mentors. In 75% of the mentor focus groups, Personal Factors were discussed (n=9) and out of 26 total responses, 14 were negative and 12 were positive.

Mentors mentioned mentees stubbornness and lack of commitment, for example:

*“Mentee stubborn in taking himself outside of comfort zone; frustrating”  
(Mentor/cohort 1/focus group 1).*

*“Mentees heart is not really in it...no belief...mentee commitment?”  
(Mentor/cohort 3/focus group 1).*

Another mentor reflected on possible reasons for their mentees lack of commitment:

*“Question whether mentee sees being a woman Police Officer as a barrier...I see some forthright women in higher levels, but some are not...maybe affecting her confidence levels?” (Mentor/cohort 4/focus group 2).*

Others reflected that lack of commitment should mean that they should not be part of the mentoring scheme, as they were hindering others from getting access to this opportunity:

*“Mentoring should be seen as a luxury for high potential, talented people that will move up the organisation. Mentees who deliver nothing or do not currently display the right attitudes/behaviour should not be on the scheme” (Mentor/cohort 2/focus group 2).*

Other more positive mentor responses reflected on having a clear purpose and focus being helpful, a good structure, “an early trusting relationship” (Mentor/cohort 1/focus group 1) but mostly discussed the enthusiasm and commitment of the mentees to engage, for example:

*“Mentees are keen, eager, have good approach, very enthusiastic, positive, realistic, engaging very well” (Mentor/cohort 4/focus group 1).*

*“Mentees willingness to engage (they have a genuine will to do this)”  
(Mentor/cohort 4/focus group 2).*



